

The copyright of this thesis vests in the author. No quotation from it or information derived from it is to be published without full acknowledgement of the source. The thesis is to be used for private study or non-commercial research purposes only.

Published by the University of Cape Town (UCT) in terms of the non-exclusive license granted to UCT by the author.

And ever shall be?
**A Model for Teaching French as a Foreign Language
in South African Tertiary Institutions**

BY

Vanessa Marguerite Everson

Thesis Presented for the Degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

in the School of Languages and Literatures

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE TOWN

Supervisor: Professor David Wardle

September 2008

Abstract

The assumption underpinning the thesis is that the current teaching of French at South African universities caters imperfectly for learner needs and fails to reflect pedagogical practice and learning theories appropriate to the twenty-first century. Firstly, so as to contextualise that teaching, the Western European legacy of second- and foreign-language teaching is examined briefly from earliest times to the latter part of the twentieth century. Particular attention is given to changes in practice and learning theories over time with the aim of understanding the roots of the teaching of French while detecting possible lasting influences on that teaching. Secondly, current practice (curriculum, pedagogy, and assessment) at fourteen South African universities offering undergraduate courses in French is analysed critically against the backdrop of more recent learning theories; these are found to have little resonance in current practice. The analysis informs the model which is then proposed for the teaching of tertiary-level French at South African institutions. The starting point for the model is the acknowledgement that in South Africa French is a foreign language and must be taught as such. Consideration is given to the learning environment, as well as to ideology and constraints which exert influence on the teaching of French. With the proposed model a certain concept of language, society and learning/teaching strategies is advocated, while the roles of the learner, teacher, didactic material, and the mother tongue are clearly positioned within that concept. The model proposes a pedagogy and curriculum, which are learner-centred, task-articulated and outcomes-based and which are anchored in constructivism and democratising ideology. Finally, reasons are given as to why the adoption of such a model would add value to the teaching of French at South African universities.

Dedication

À Serge Dominique Ménager,
ami et âme sœur

Et j'ai su avec certitude que j'étais arrivé[e] à ma destination

University of Cape Town

Acknowledgements

Sincerest thanks go to my supervisor, Professor David Wardle, for his meticulous and prompt reading of the thesis manuscript and for his most apposite comments. I should also like to thank Dr Joanne Hardman of the Department of Education of the University of Cape Town for having taken the time to read Parts One and Three of the first draft, for her perspicacious suggestions and confirmation that the research was proceeding in the right direction. Thanks go to Associate Professor Suellen Shay of CHED for her thoughtful comments on Part Three, as well as to Mark Wattrus for his expert technical advice on flowcharts. I am also indebted to Associate Professor Melissa Steyn of the University of Cape Town; it was she who first alerted me to the intrinsic interest of an intercultural approach. I thank my home institution for three months research leave, without which this doctoral study could not have been completed. I extend thanks to those colleagues from other South African universities who willingly gave of their time to fill in questionnaires and provide information. I am extremely grateful to the *Service de Coopération et d'Action Culturelle* of the French Embassy, for having funded numerous in-service training courses which have enabled me to improve my skills as a teacher of French as a Foreign Language, thereby supporting my enquiry into the appropriateness of a new model for tertiary-level French at South African universities. I am sincerely grateful to 'The Likeminded', those colleagues from the University of Cape Town's School of Languages and Literatures and friends from elsewhere, whose moral support and irreverent sense of humour afforded me a crucial link to life when working full-time while simultaneously undertaking doctoral research. Warm thanks go to my parents, Marguerite and Ralph Bilbie, for their unfailing encouragement. Finally, I extend heartfelt gratitude to my children, Benedick and Camilla, for their youthful optimism and belief that this was all possible. Each one of you played a part: I thank you all.

University of Cape Town,
2008.

Contents

And ever shall be?

A Model for Teaching French as a Foreign Language in South African Tertiary Institutions

	Page
Abstract	ii
Dedication	iii
Acknowledgements	iv
Contents	v
Introduction	1
Part One <i>As it was in the beginning ...</i>	4
From the Dawn of Time to the Late Twentieth Century A brief historical overview of foreign language teaching	
Chapter 1 - Living then dead, language resuscitated and moves towards reform	6
Foreign language teaching from the third century BC to the mid twentieth century	
Chapter 2 –Language in the grip of science – what, how and when	37
Foreign language teaching from the mid to the late twentieth century	
Part Two <i>Is now ...</i>	74
Theory meets Practice The Theory and Practice of Teaching French as a Foreign Language at the turn of the century	
Chapter 1 - In Practice	76
French as it is taught at South African universities in the early years of the twenty-first century	
Chapter 2 – Theoretically	117
Theoretical aspects of language-teaching at turn of the century	
Part Three <i>And ever shall be?</i>	130
A proposed model for teaching French as a foreign language in South African tertiary institutions	
Introduction	131
The Learning Context:	
i A formal learning environment	131
ii Influences on foreign language study at national and institutional levels: ideology and constraints	135

Chapter 1 –A Language Model	140
1.i Concepts of language	141
1.ii Concepts of society and culture	144
Chapter 2 – A Language-Learning Model	149
2.i Concepts of language-learning	149
2.ii Role of the learner	150
Chapter 3 – A Language Teaching Model	152
3.i Concepts of language teaching	152
3.ii Role of the language teacher	154
3.iii Role of didactic material	160
Chapter 4 – A Model for the Pedagogical Relationship	169
4.i Selection of course content	169
4.ii Organisation of course content	174
4.iii Presentation of course content	185
Chapter 5 – A Model for the Learning Relationship	196
5.i Role of the mother tongue	196
5.ii Pedagogical activities	198
Chapter 6 – A Model for the Teaching Relationship	225
6.i Teacher / learner interaction	225
6.ii Error	225
6.iii Assessment	229
Conclusion	242
Annexures	248
References: works cited	344
References: works consulted	361

Introduction

*In every serious philosophical question uncertainty extends
to the very roots of the problem.
We must always be prepared to learn something totally new.
Wittgenstein.*

University of Cape Town

Introduction

This study was prompted in part by a question posed by the French Foreign Affairs attaché for cooperation for French in New Zealand at an international conference at the University of Auckland in June 2006. Mr François Lucas asked whether my aim at the University of Cape Town was to create a university-level *Français Langue Étrangère* or *FLE* (French as a Foreign Language). *FLE* is a recognised subdivision of foreign-language teaching in France, where certain universities offer academic qualifications in *FLE* and various organisations train teacher-trainers in the discipline. Encapsulated in *FLE* is the advisability of teaching French to non mother-tongue speakers in a particular way because they **are** non mother-tongue speakers. And yet at South African universities, the notion of *FLE* and its applicability are generally overlooked. It seems that once learners leave the school system, unless they are learning French at an *Alliance*, then they are no longer studying French as a Foreign Language, but just French. Separated from its designation as a foreign language, French appears to exist without the protective framework of sturdy methodology or the illumination of pedagogical reflexion.

An explanatory note on terminology is appropriate here. For the purposes of this study I have adhered to an opposition defined by Stern (1983: 9) to indicate a “relationship between a language and an individual or a group” (*ibid*). I speak mainly of the opposition between mother tongue and foreign language. I could equally have used the terms L1 and L2, first language and second language, native language and non-native language, primary language and secondary language, or stronger language and weaker language. On the whole, I have favoured the terms ‘mother tongue’ and ‘foreign language’ because, for many students in South Africa, French is not a secondary language, (a position occupied rather by one of the eleven national languages), but comes in third or fourth place. Moreover, given the geographical distance separating South Africa from Francophone countries, and the consequent unlikelihood of learners of French having contact with native French speakers, in South Africa the French language can be characterised by its ‘foreignness’.

In Part One of the thesis, I set out to supply context to the current status of university-level French in South Africa by retracing the history of second-language teaching back to earliest times. Customarily scholars of *FLE* do not extend their

analyses earlier than the late nineteenth century. Certain language historians go back to the early Renaissance, others to Classical Antiquity. I favour the latter approach because, like Howatt, I believe in the importance of fostering professionalism through identifying roots and traditions. Having examined briefly trends in second-language teaching over the ages, in Part Two, I interrogate current practice at South African universities against the backdrop of evolving learning theories with the aim of defining current practice and ascertaining whether university teaching of French has kept abreast of developments in didactics or whether, as a result of the absence of 'foreignness', these theoretical advances are largely ignored.

How should learner interests and needs be addressed? Which concepts of language, society, culture, language-learning and language-teaching should university teachers of French embrace? In Part Three, reflexion prompted by Mr Lucas's question leads to debate on what would constitute appropriate university-level *FLE* in South Africa.

Part One

As it was in the beginning ...

*The importance of identifying roots and sources
in fostering a strong sense of professionalism
– in this case among language teachers
cannot be overstated
A.P.R. Howatt*

University of Cape Town

From the Dawn of Time to the Eve of the Twenty First Century

A brief historical overview of foreign language teaching

It would be illogical to suggest rejection or reform of the teaching of French at tertiary level in South African universities without first establishing its current status. Furthermore, if I am to propose the retention and/or transformation of such teaching as it is today, then I need not only to examine its present standing and *modus operandi* but I must also understand and acknowledge, albeit briefly, how that position and way of functioning arose over time. In Part One of this thesis, my intention is not to present an exhaustive overview of language-teaching over the ages. Such an enterprise has been undertaken by truly eminent specialists (namely, Audet, Besse, Germain, Howatt, Kelly, Mialaret & Vial, Richards & Rodgers, and Stern), to whose scholarship I am indebted in the two chapters that follow. I have preferred to concentrate on what are generally considered to be the key developments in second- or foreign-language teaching and have given attention to the positive and negative impacts of those developments, highlighting where relevant those aspects which I perceive as the genesis of more enduring teaching-learning strategies. In short, since I am dealing with the didactics of French within the context of tertiary education in South Africa, I believe it important to acknowledge the historical background of that country, namely that its education system has been imported from Western Europe, which has, in turn, often been involved in a symbiotic relationship with North America. Therefore, an understanding of what the Western European legacy has been in the domain of foreign-language teaching will arguably provide context for the current situation of foreign-language teaching at South African tertiary institutions and inform any critique and moves towards change.

Chapter 1 – Living then dead, language resuscitated and moves towards reform

Language teaching from the fifth century BC to the early twentieth century

Like others before him¹, Germain makes reference to what is one of the earliest examples of foreign language teaching: that of the Akkadians in Mesopotamia. What is of interest to us here is that the oldest of all known civilisations to use writing, the Sumerians, whose civilisation goes back some five thousand years, was also the first to be involved in second-language teaching in what one might term a “formal” way. Not that mastery of foreign languages did not exist prior to that. Since the dawn of time, human beings have needed to communicate with one another. Indeed, one may safely conclude that mastery of foreign languages (for whatever reason – economic, diplomatic, social, commercial, or military) has always existed and that this has occurred as a result of direct contact with native speakers of those languages. However, it was the advent of writing that gave the impetus to formal language-learning. As Renzo Titone (1968: 5) has indicated, attention in this regard must therefore be focused first on the Sumerians. As a result of archaeological digs, Kramer has been able to provide much information not only on Sumerian cuneiform writing but also on the Sumerian school system and language-learning. In Sumerian schools, the task of the scribes was first and foremost to train other scribes in cuneiform writing. Later in the realm of language apprenticeship, apprentice scribes would study and copy out laws, commemorative inscriptions, legal codes and judgements, myths, fables, proverbs and epic poems. At a Sumerian school, pupils were taught what amounted essentially to catalogues of words, classified semantically. Although Kramer details grammatical classification of words, he asserts that no evidence has been unearthed of any definition of a single grammatical rule listed (Kramer, 1957: 73) and so one may conclude, along with Germain (1993: 23), that it would be erroneous to talk of grammar teaching.

Could one, nevertheless, speak in this instance of foreign language teaching? Bonnetterre² considers that the purpose of the lists of cuneiform signs was to teach

¹ Several historians of language (Titone, Kelly, Mialaret and Vial) trace second-language teaching back to earliest times. Mialaret and Vial pursue the theme until 1515, Titone and Kelly until the late 1960s. Others concentrate on specific historical epochs (1400 onwards for Howatt, 17th to 20th centuries for Audet), whilst others turn their attention to particular personalities in the field of language teaching (Comenius in the case of Bovet and Piaget). Germain traces second-language teaching from Classical Antiquity through to the late 1980s.

² PhD thesis completed in 1991 for the Department of History of the University of Montreal, the title of which is: “L’exercice du pouvoir royal en Babylonie d’après les Archives Royales de Mari.”

written Sumerian as a sacred language. Evidence is that, as a spoken language, Sumerian disappeared relatively early on, but that the Akkadian speakers learned it as a written language, which was then completely different from the spoken language that they used in their daily life. Therefore, one can truly speak of the first example of formal foreign language teaching, although the semantic emphasis would mean that one could not describe it as the Grammar-Translation Method of language teaching. Nevertheless, given the fact that learners were acquiring knowledge of a language foreign to them in the land of origin of that language, one could justifiably speak of this as being the very first example of what, millennia later, would be trumpeted with great excitement as the immersion method³.

Tracing chronologically the history of foreign language teaching in general in order to understand better the context of the teaching of French as a Foreign Language⁴, leads me, like Germain (1993: 33), to make mention of educational practice in Egypt under the Pharaohs. Inasmuch as an archaic language can be considered to be almost a foreign language in that it is so different from any current language, then with reference to Ancient Egypt one is justified in talking of foreign language teaching. The task of the Egyptian educator was to inculcate in his pupils respect for Truth and Order (the *Ma'at*), which was conveyed in a series of maxims, which the educator dictated to the pupil who learned them off by heart before reciting them. Since hieratic Egyptian was considerably different from the demotic Egyptian⁵ spoken by the populace, these dictations, memorisations and recitations can be considered to fall within the domain of foreign-language learning, in much the same way as first-language English students decipher fourteenth century English in Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales* or their French counterparts the anonymous early twelfth century epic *Chanson de Roland* or thirteenth century prose-romance *Le Roman de Laurin*, as though they were grappling with a foreign language. The *Ma'at* teaching was not a matter of the master drilling isolated

³ A cautionary note should be sounded here: the distinction should be drawn between this very first example of the immersion method of language-learning and the form in which this method appeared when it re-emerged in the twentieth century, to be known as foreign-language learning through immersion. When the latter appeared from the 1980s onwards (possibly spurred on by research into the effect of bilingualism on cognitive development cf. Cummins, 1976), its hallmark was its essentially oral focus, whereas the Akkadian model targeted scriptural competence. The immersion method was to give rise to bilingual programmes, and, more recently, provided impetus to situated learning.

⁴ Henceforth I shall use the abbreviation *FLE* (*Français langue étrangère*) when referring to French as a Foreign Language.

⁵ For an explanation of the three forms of writing used in Ancient Egypt, the study by Jean of writing as human memory, *L'Écriture mémoire des hommes*, is most informative (1987, Paris, Gallimard).

symbols but whole sentences (Mialaret & Vial, 1981: 72); it is tempting, therefore, to cite the Ancient Egyptian *Ma'at* teaching as an early example of learning in context using an authentic document, as opposed to material that has been fabricated in accordance with the learner's imperfect knowledge of the language being studied.

Further, the Ancient Egyptians set out to learn the language of their vanquished enemies (and, in so doing, behaved linguistically like the Akkadians). Titone (1968: 6) provides evidence of multilingual tablets as well as the use of foreign words and expressions in Egyptian scribes' letters. It is not clear, however, how such foreign language mastery was acquired. Whereas there is proof of a formal learning environment for the *Ma'at*, no proof of an educational system for learning the foreign language of the conquered enemy exists. Mialaret and Vial posit the teaching in private or administrative circles of the languages of Canaan, Akkadia and Crete (1981: 77).

Since I have argued that the teaching of the *Ma'at* in the Egypt of the Pharaohs could be likened to that of a foreign language, it is logical that I should make mention of the teaching of the Homeric epics in Ancient Greece, which was in many respects similar. Marrou details the philological nature of language-learning undertaken by pupils in the Hellenistic Age, when spoken Greek (*koiné*) had evolved substantially from classical Greek; pupils reconstituted in their everyday language linguistic elements found in Classical Greek (1960: 232). It would, however, be erroneous to place much emphasis on this, since scholars concur on the very minor importance placed by Ancient Greeks on foreign languages⁶. Those few individuals who learned Latin because, as aristocrats, they were eligible to become Senators, or those who aspired to careers in the army, civil service or law⁷ can in no way be considered as providing proof of extensive foreign language teaching in Ancient Greece.

Evidence of foreign-language teaching is next apparent from the third century B.C. when, like the Akkadians and Egyptians before them, the victorious Romans decided to learn the language of their colonised subjects, Greek. From the second century B.C. onwards there was a bilingual (Latin/Greek) education system in Rome⁸

⁶ We know that, although well-structured educational establishments existed in the city-states of 7th century B.C. Sparta and Athens from the 6th century B.C. onwards, as well as during the Hellenistic era (4th to 2nd centuries B.C.), the teaching that was dispensed in those schools was entirely monolingual (cf. Cribiore, 2001).

⁷ As Marrou indicates, mastery of Latin was indispensable in the legal field (Marrou, 1960: 348-349).

⁸ Germain adds that this would most probably have extended to other cities, since education is an urban phenomenon (1993: 43).

and, a hundred years later, all cultured Romans were as fluent in Greek as they were in Latin (Marrou, 1960: 350-351)⁹. There is evidence that bilingualism in education spanned several centuries; indeed, Marrou refers to bilingual text books¹⁰ dating back to the third century A.D. Furthermore, there is evidence that foreign-language teaching at the time was dispensed to both girls and boys who were divided broadly into three age groups and streamed according to ability (Germain, 1993: 45). Foreign-language learning relied exclusively then on three activities: memorisation of vocabulary lists, writing through imitation of the style of certain classical authors, and the use of dialogues. Millennia later aspects of that legacy still remain. Moreover, we know that there was some “mutual” teaching (the expression is Germain’s), whereby the older and better-versed pupils helped the younger and less adept. Thus, group learning (where peers collaborate and learn together) can be traced back to the earliest centuries of our era.

However, it should be noted that, in general terms, education was the privilege of a minority elite, since throughout Antiquity culture benefited the ruling classes alone. Despite the cultural nostalgia and a yearning for renaissance, which were hallmarks of the Second Sophistic, the teaching of Greek was restricted to certain elitist places of learning. Although there is much epigraphic evidence of Latin being translated into Greek with city-states setting up translators of senatorial decrees, there were no state translations schools. Whereas there is evidence of a bilingual type of teaching from the second century B.C. until the western part of the Roman Empire collapsed in A.D. 476, the emphasis that pedagogues placed on the mastery of the great Latin writers, coupled with the choice of Latin as the liturgical language of the Christian church, led to an evolution of the education system so that by the third century A.D., Greek retained its hold in the eastern reaches of the Roman Empire, and Latin in the West; two hundred

⁹ In aristocratic families education was truly bilingual since, before starting primary school at age seven, the child was in the care of a Greek slave and thus learned to speak Greek and, once at school, to read and write it too (Adams, 2003).

¹⁰ These *Hermeneumata* contain alphabetically arranged Greek–Latin vocabulary lists, followed by simple narrative or conversational texts, and finally dialogues (Marrou, 1960: 356-357). One could therefore posit that, since they resemble practical manuals designed to help the learner communicate, the *Hermeneumata* constitute, in theory at least, the first example of emphasis being placed on the communicative competence (see Titone, 1968: 7 for an example of a dialogue in Latin and Greek found in a conversation manual). In practice, however, it appears that these textbooks were not used in a communicative manner. According to Marrou, we know that Roman school children learned to translate *verbatim* excerpts from classical authors (1960: 345-346, 357). We should, therefore, rather speak of the *Hermeneumata* as constituting the first example of material used for the Grammar-Translation Method of language-learning.

years later, the hold of Latin over Spain, Gaul, part of North Africa and the Northern Balkan region was complete¹¹. It is important to recall at this juncture that Latin was a living language.

It was during the centuries that followed that the evolution of Latin brought about a change in its own status as a means of spoken communication. At the end of the fifth century A.D., the Germanic invasions of the Roman Empire and subsequent subdivision of the land eroded the position of Latin (Cohen, 1973: 33-54). Whereas it retained its status as the language of knowledge, of literature and religion, an everyday Latin was spawned, a vernacular spoken by ordinary folk and which was the origin of what would later be known as the Romance languages – French, Italian and Spanish. Scholars agree that the fifth to the eighth centuries A.D. witnessed a decline in educational standards and in schools set up for the Romanisation of the children of the elite. To my knowledge, there is no evidence of state foreign-language teaching. What occurred, however, was that ‘high’ Latin, needed to understand legal documents, chronicles and, in particular the Bible, diverged increasingly from the vernacular, giving rise thereby to the first examples of glossaries¹². At this time until the early beginnings of Feudalism, formal, organised education (given in Latin) was inseparable from religion since the teachers were clerks and monks, with Episcopal, Presbytery and monastic schools emerging in the sixth century A.D. Secular education no longer existed, so that in Gaul, for example, with the demise of secular schools, parents either taught their children to read and write themselves or employed a tutor to do so. These children rote-learned classical authors to complement their study of the fourth century grammarian Donatus’s Latin grammar (Riché, 1979: 25). Since ‘high’ Latin and its vernacular form are in fact two varieties of the same language, albeit significantly different, it would be misleading to speak of foreign- or second-language learning in early Mediaeval times. There were undoubtedly those who learned a foreign language in their private capacity, but there is no evidence that such language apprenticeship occurred in a formal, institutionalised context.

At this time, however, the situation was slightly different for those whose mother tongues were Gaelic or Germanic languages, the derivation of which is not

¹¹ Nevertheless, to a certain extent, it is possible to speak of evidence of learning through immersion since, at an advanced level, this remained discipline-specific with philosophy, natural sciences and medicine being taught in Greek.

¹² Germain places these glossaries, or explanatory commentaries, in the seventh and eighth centuries (1993: 52).

Latin. The example of Ireland is typical in this regard. The monastic and religious context of the Celtic culture meant that monks had to learn Latin to afford them access to the Christian liturgy and Bible. By the close of the fifth century A.D., Celts could become competent in Latin, which was for them a second language and which was taught through religious writings and Donatus's Latin Grammar (Riché, 1979: 41). In Gaul, however, Latin acquired the status of a second language approximately four hundred years later under the empire of Charlemagne, by which time it was sufficiently distinct from *ancien français* (Old French) as spoken by the populace to warrant its teaching in schools¹³. Then the following four centuries saw the consolidation of *ancien français*, the ancestor of modern French. What is of interest here is the effect of market forces upon language-learning since, from the twelfth century onwards, there was a gradual emergence of secular schools in urban areas as traders increasingly felt the need to train future traders. With the burgeoning of these schools, where education was given in French, Spanish or Italian for example, religious schools became more inward-looking, exclusive and removed from mainstream education. Translations in French of classical authors existed, indicating possibly either the supremacy of French over Latin for the educated sectors of society, or the desire to cater to a larger educated element in society who had no classical education. Nevertheless, it appears that the status of the French language was not yet sufficiently elevated for it to be imposed for official documents (Cohen, 1973: 82). What we do know with some certainty is that neither the teaching of Latin as a second language (whether in England, France, Germany or Ireland) nor the nature of language teaching varied much between the seventh and eleventh centuries (Riché, 1979: 187).

Indeed, during those years the teaching of both Latin and the national languages continued unchanged and retained the same four pedagogical activities and methodology employed for the early learning of Latin: reading by progressing from syllables to words, thence to sentences with the emphasis being on rote learning¹⁴; colloquia or dialogues for which the school manuals contained glossaries in the vernacular of the pupil; grammar and the learning of vocabulary aimed at maximising lexical acquisition in the learner by the use of glossaries in Latin of the words most

¹³ The genesis of the French language, which supplanted the Celtic Gallic language, is generally accepted to be the 842 *Serments de Strasbourg* read in the Norman and Germanic languages, but not in Latin.

¹⁴ Indeed, Riché's statement is most apposite in this regard: "À cette époque, savoir par cœur, c'est savoir" (1979: 218).

frequently encountered both in everyday life and in the Bible. The Colloquia are of great interest in that they constitute the first true example of role-playing exercises with a utilitarian focus¹⁵. It would appear that this language methodology was only partly successful in the case of Latin, in which few pupils attained true competence (Riché, 1979: 235). I would reiterate, however, that since all disciplines were taught in Latin (history, geography, law and philosophy), one can also speak of learning through immersion or situated learning.

Latin as a medium of communication was gradually supplanted by the various national languages whose status evolved as a result of historical events. Of course, as these regional dialects increased in importance, it became necessary that they too be taught in a formalised way and the methodology adopted was understandably modelled on that used for teaching Latin – after all, it had already been tried and tested over many years. Initially teaching materials did not differ significantly either¹⁶. One can, therefore, speak of a continuum in second- or foreign-language methodology from the days of the Roman Empire (for the teaching of Greek) through to the Middle Ages (when language teaching focused on Latin as a means of communication) and up until the early Renaissance (when national languages were also incorporated).

In the early years of the Renaissance, however, a change took place in language teaching, a change that was the direct result of the status of Latin and French, as these languages transformed under the influence of political and social events: by the 1650s the teaching of mother-tongue French was in place in France. The methodology used for this was grammar and author analysis (Puren, 1988: 161). Intellectuals of the day recoiled at the gaping divide that they perceived between the original works of such authors as Cicero, Virgil and Ovid and the Latin that was being taught. These Renaissance Humanists called for a re-birth of ‘pure’ Latin as found in the writings of the Greats, which, in turn, engendered a far greater emphasis on the theoretical aspects of Latin grammar. Teachers no longer taught Latin for communicative purposes and Latin, as a consequence, died. It took on the status of a ‘dead language’ and became an ideal tool for fostering great intellectual agility in the learner. One perceives here, then, a trend which would later be adopted for the teaching of modern foreign languages, that is to say an insistence on grammatical correctness, underpinned by the study of

¹⁵ Riché quotes one of Aelfric’s role-plays in which pupils act out the parts of the ploughman, the oxherd and the hunter (1979: 230).

¹⁶ The comprehensive study undertaken by Howatt is highly informative in this regard (1984).

‘classical’ authors whose writings could be held up as the finest examples of the craft of writing in those languages. Indeed, as we shall see in Part Two of this study, some South African universities adhere to those same principles for curriculum design even to this day.

Germain rightly points out that private tutors existed alongside, and as an alternative to, the school system for second- or foreign-language learning from Classical Antiquity onwards. Where he is, in my view, mistaken is the example that he gives of the fifth century B.C. *Sophistai*. Germain states that these Greek Sophists were tutors who dispensed collective teaching in Greek. I would contend that the scholar has conflated two social phenomena. Indeed, there were Greek Sophists in the fifth century BC but these learned men did not teach the use of their language as a second or foreign language until a good two centuries later¹⁷ as it was only then that such knowledge was of use to the Romans then in power. Furthermore, evidence suggests that from the inception of the *Sophistai*’s peregrinations which took them to urban centres where they would teach their audiences how to use language, there was the implication that language could be manipulated in such a way that it could become a tool which enabled the skilled speaker to arrive at his own ends in what was often a bid for power, hence of course the derogatory connotation attached nowadays to the nouns “sophists” and “sophistry”. Germain is, to my mind, perfectly justified in his contention that tutors existed from the fifth century B.C. onwards in the form of trusted Greek slaves, a phenomenon that was to continue throughout the Middle Ages. By then, of course, tutors were no longer indentured servants but free, cultured individuals possessing great knowledge. It would, however, be misleading to overemphasise their use¹⁸ and the impact that they had on the evolution of education since their role in that area came into prominence from the sixteenth century onwards.

It is only at this much later stage that one can truly speak of the impact tutors had on teaching methods. Germain chooses to highlight three of many such tutors because of their lasting influence as pedagogues and the legacy of their writings: Ascham and Montaigne in the sixteenth century, and Locke in the seventeenth century. Germain’s decision to focus on these tutors is apposite because all three attest to the importance of foreign-language learning, review existing methodologies and posit

¹⁷ I am grateful to my colleague, Dr Clive Chandler, Head of the Section of Classical Studies of the School of Languages and Literatures of the University of Cape Town, for this precision (May 2007).

¹⁸ In the sixteenth century, tutors were still to be found only in the homes of well-to-do families.

reform. In this way, then, these three thinkers sowed the seeds of how language-teaching would later develop. It is true that, in general, tutors existed on the margins of a wider school system but, because these three were engaged to teach children of the rich and powerful in positions of influence and authority, their educational philosophy impacted on a far wider audience than merely those entrusted to their care. Ascham is of relevance to this study because he was the first to assess critically several pedagogical activities for language-learning¹⁹ (Howatt, 1984: 305-306). Of these six activities (double translation, paraphrase or reformulation, metaphrase or transformation of a poetic text into prose and vice versa, résumé, imitation, and declamation in public), he retained only two: double translation and imitation. What is equally pertinent is that among those six activities are three that are advocated by present-day compilers of *FLE* manuals and teachers of translation and interpreting alike: paraphrase, résumé, and imitation²⁰. The second sixteenth century tutor to have a lasting effect on the way in which education would develop, specifically in France but more generally in the Western world, was Montaigne. This philosopher stands out as being the first to present a reasoned defence of the advisability of starting foreign-language learning at a very early age, of the desirability of learning through communication with native speakers (as opposed to the in- and re-gurgitation of grammar rules) and of making learning enjoyable²¹ through the use of games. By his insistence on second/foreign languages being taught by native-language speakers so that the pupil can acquire some understanding and appreciation of others' cultural practices and attitudes, Montaigne stands, in fact, as the forefather of language studies which, four centuries later, were to highlight the need to place linguistic knowledge within a cultural context (Titone, 1968: 13). It is my contention that Germain is overly cautious in his reluctance to name the sixteenth century thinker a precursor; for the Canadian linguist, within the context of education for the ruling classes, Montaigne is little different from his contemporaries (1993: 73).

¹⁹ These are to be found in the second part of his work *The Schoolmaster* published posthumously (1570) (Germain, 1993: 71).

²⁰ Although the advisability of the latter within the context of literature teaching is highly debatable (see Part Three: 225).

²¹ See, for example Livre I, chapitre XXVI: "Quant au Grec, dequel je n'ay quasi du tout point d'intelligence, mon pere desseigna me le faire apprendre par art, mais d'une voie nouvelle, par forme d'ébat et d'exercice ... à la manière de ceux qui, par certains jeux de tablier, apprennent l'Arithmétique et la Géométrie ..." (1965: 174).

The Briton Locke (1632-1704) is, like his French counterpart roughly a century before him, also a precursor in the field of foreign-language learning. I would recall that at that time, although French and English were gaining a greater foothold, most intellectuals wrote in Latin²². Is it not plausible to suggest that, whereas Locke had written and published in Latin (his letter on tolerance, for example), the philosopher made a calculated decision to express himself on language-learning in his mother tongue? What **is** certain, is that his recommendations for language-learning herald the position that specialists in the didactics of *FLE* would adopt almost four centuries later by taking the learner's needs as the starting point for the methodology. Locke maintains that the majority of learners learn a language because they need to communicate in it in an everyday, social context (Locke, 1693: 225). It is precisely this context that, for Locke, dictates the manner in which the language will be learned, not through the mastery of rules but rather through usage. After all, Locke asserts, it is daily usage which fashions language practice not sets of disembodied rules or artistic niceties (Locke, 1693: 224). Indeed, this rejection of the teaching of grammar and the recommendation that the pupil should learn through hearing the language spoken and then in turn speaking it himself, leads Reicyn, as cited by Germain (1993: 75) to conclude that Locke was familiar with Montaigne's persuasive arguments in this regard. Locke reserves the mastery of grammatical rules for aspirant writers; he refers here to the future writer's mastery of the grammatical rules of his mother tongue, for such mastery will enable him to express himself appropriately both orally and in writing (Locke, 1693: 225). Locke advocates the study of the grammar of foreign languages only for serious students of linguistics and philology (1693: 226), maintaining that the great majority of pupils, who are destined to be neither authors, philologists nor linguists, should be learning to communicate in the target language through usage facilitated by their tutors²³. Although Locke may well have attracted most attention in the seventeenth century because of his then novel insistence on prioritising mother-tongue learning firstly over French, and later Latin, he beckons to us across four centuries even more as the precursor of communicative language-learning as dictated by daily usage.

²² One of the best known examples of this is Isaac Newton's *Philosophiae Naturalis Principia Mathematica* (1687). The French philosopher René Descartes' *Discours de la méthode* and Locke's *Some Thoughts Concerning Education*, published in 1637 and 1693 respectively, constitute two of the earliest examples of scholarly works written in the vernacular.

²³ Locke concedes that, should it not be possible to employ the services of a tutor with native fluency, then alternate line translations and annotated grammar manuals should be used (1693: 219).

I have posited that Ascham, in a minor way, and Montaigne and Locke, to a greater extent, can be viewed as precursors of language teaching inasmuch as they can be considered as having influenced thinking around that domain. However, it is undoubtedly Comenius²⁴ who is the true founder of language didactics because he was the first person to refer to language didactics within a national, and even international, school structure and not the narrower confines of the private tutoring scheme. Comenius observed disorder within the school system, a disorder that extended to methods of language-learning. He aimed to create a general theory that would involve the clear definition of objectives and the means of achieving these, while making language-learning swift, efficient and pleasant; indeed, we have here ample justification for considering him as the first language-didactics specialist, if not the founder of Outcomes Based Education. Interestingly, Comenius based his language didactics on his general theory of education, which was, in turn, the product of his philosophy²⁵. It was, then, quite natural that, as his philosophy developed, his theories on language-learning should also evolve. Given that this thesis has as its focus the specific area of the teaching of French as a foreign language in the South African tertiary context, I will restrict my comments on Comenius mainly to his *Didactica Magna* of 1638, which has been ably explained by Caravolas (1984a and 1984b). In fact, some fifty-five years before Locke advocated that language-learning should begin with the pupil's mother tongue, Comenius had already recommended mother-tongue mastery before any introduction to a foreign language (Caravolas, 1984b: 15). It may appear that one is stating the obvious in making such a statement, since nowadays no language teacher would suggest that foreign-language learning should precede mother-tongue acquisition. However, in the first half of the seventeenth century, the learning of Latin was still frequently introduced before that of the mother tongue. Thereafter, according to Comenius, whose beliefs in this regard were dictated by what was practical and necessary for the language learner, the pupil should be introduced to the languages spoken by neighbouring peoples to enable him to interact with them (Comenius, 1952: 161). Only later, and providing that the pupil had intellectual or ecclesiastical aspirations or needs, would he learn Latin and Greek, or Hebrew and Arabic. We are,

²⁴ Comenius is the Latin name by which the Czechoslovakian metaphysician, writer, theologian and humanist, Jan Amos Komenský (1592-1670), is most widely known.

²⁵ Comenius's philosophy, known as Pansophy, is the result of his belief that all forms of knowledge should exist in unison, overarched by the spiritual dimension. Piaget defines pansophy, a term in use in the seventeenth century, thus: "(...) the doctrine of the progressive achievement of the 'world of ideas' within the superimposed worlds whose parallel strata form the universe (...)" (1993: 2).

then, in the presence of a thinker who, unlike the majority of his contemporaries, did not believe that the prime reason for language-learning was to facilitate access to the culture of Classical Antiquity. With Comenius, we have the first evidence of what, a little over three hundred and fifty years later, would become a consideration in foreign-language learning: the desirability of fostering intercultural awareness among pupils and, through the access to culture via language, a greater understanding among peoples.²⁶

According to Comenius, all languages²⁷ are learned in the same way that the mother tongue is acquired, that is via the senses to the brain. He, therefore, advocated concrete, sense-based language-learning for the young pupil who would spend about ten years mastering his mother tongue, before graduating naturally to a more abstract, theoretical learning process as a teenager, by which time one year would suffice to learn a foreign language (Comenius, 1952: 161-164). He distinguishes four types of schools for what we would now call the four major stages in education: infancy, childhood, adolescence and young adulthood, corresponding to the various changes in mental development (Comenius, 1896: Chapter XXIX: 418) and shows deep psychological insight in his awareness of, and respect for, the various developmental stages of the child and the appropriateness of teaching based on the learner's existing linguistic acquisition:

Though these schools be different, we do not wish them to teach different things, but rather the same things in a different manner. I mean (...) they should be taught in consideration of the pupil's age and the standard of his prior preparation, which should always tend gradually upward.

(Comenius, 1896: Chapter XVII: 289)

Similar to the stance taken by Locke in relation to the tutoring system is Comenius's belief that languages are learned more through usage than rules. Despite subordinating rules to usage, Comenius nevertheless retains rules to the extent that they clarify and confirm usage (Comenius, 1952: 163). This indicates that his theories are

²⁶ As a minister of the *Unitas Fratrum Bohemorum* church, Comenius's desire for harmony among peoples was in accordance with his religious calling (Piaget, 1993: 3).

²⁷ Comenius believed language to be first and foremost an instrument to designate objects and represent thoughts; its secondary function was to communicate. Furthermore, he espoused the theory that there was only one set of grammatical rules governing all languages, since the latter had arisen as an attempt to create order from the confusion of the Tower of Babel, (which is why, for Comenius, Hebrew was the parent of all other languages).

distinctly systematised, as does his insistence that language-learning be directed, errors be corrected swiftly and opportunities to speak be multiplied (Caravolas, 1984b: 15). In the seventeenth century, teaching was individualised, meaning that the master taught each pupil individually in turn for a few minutes, during which time the other pupils ran amok (Audet, 1971: Tome I: 49, 260), whereas Comenius suggested what we would nowadays in *FLE* term “*travail de groupe*”, or group learning of mixed ability learners, during which weaker pupils would be aided by more able learners. Furthermore, Comenius emphasises imitation and group games. “He appears, in this connection”, states Piaget, “to have recognised the role of the social relationship set up among players of games, as well as the role of competition and the rules imposed upon players by the game” (1993²⁸: 8), roles which modern day pedagogues and specialist didacticians take into account.

It is Comenius’s *Didactica Magna* of 1638²⁹, which is of real relevance to the teacher of languages because of its specific didactic recommendations. Comenius defines the teacher’s role as being that of putting the learner in a situation in which the latter can learn what the teacher already knows. In modern day *FLE* parlance, we would speak of the need to create a learning-favourable environment. The humanist advocates that object-related language be learned through those objects or images representing them. This emphasis on the association of the word and the thing it represents puts one in mind of the Direct Method of the 1950s and 60s. Behind the Aristotelian language of matter and form, Comenius is pointing to the progressive sequence of structure-building. Piaget points out that “as a teacher, he is fully aware of the harm done by that enduring curse of education – verbalism or pseudo-knowledge (...) associated with mere words, as distinct from the real knowledge created by the action of the pupil upon the objects of his study” (1993: 6). From an educational standpoint, then, one can interpret this as functionally acquired knowledge becoming spontaneously organised. As Piaget points out: “[I]t can therefore be co-ordinated with logical and verbal structures wherever such co-ordination is based upon a sound, ‘form-desiring’ initial content” (*idem*).

One can pursue this line of thought further, because it is apparent that, like pedagogues three and a half centuries later, Comenius systematised a set of didactic

²⁸ Reprint of 1957 publication.

²⁹ Here and elsewhere, I have used the 1952 French translation by J.B. Piobetta. I have also consulted and make reference to the anonymous translation of Comenius published in 1896 by Adam & Charles Black.

rules: examples first, then rules, and finally practice through exercises, which should resemble as closely as possible game-playing activities (although the notion of language exercises as “*activités ludiques*”, or “fun activities” was only to appear several years later). By stressing examples first and rules later, the Czechoslovakian metaphysician is respecting the natural course of action - that one acts spontaneously first and only afterwards reflects on the circumstances of that action. Piaget sums it up thus: “Examples cannot be deduced from a rule unless the rule is understood, but understanding of that rule derives from the retrospective organisation of examples already used in spontaneous practice” (Piaget, 1993, reflecting on Comenius, 1896: Chapter XIV: 268). We witness here the very first instances of language-teaching practice as adopted in the mid-twentieth century: introduction of new material, inductive grammar through examples, and reinforcement drills. This principle of prior activity that calls into play simultaneously needs and interests, or what is known in the Science of Education as ‘affective motivation’ (cf. Young, 1959), and functional practice as a source of knowledge merits attention. In the broadest sense, we are witnessing here Comenius’s awareness of the importance of relevant context and learner motivation, both of which feature prominently in modern-day language-learning. Bovet quotes three salient passages from Comenius in this regard. “Do not undertake any teaching without first arousing the interest of the pupil” and later: “Always offer something which will be both agreeable and useful; the pupils’ minds will thus be primed and they will come forward eagerly, with ever-ready attention”. Finally, Bovet recalls how Comenius states that, when a subject does not meet any clearly determined need, the teacher should have recourse to beginning something, then break it off in order to create a gap, (start telling a story, for example, and then break it off in the middle) (Bovet, 1943: 18, 24). Piaget defines this as “not exactly a need, but what the psychologist K. Lewin, who has studied the effect of such interrupted action, has called ‘quasi-needs’” (Piaget, 1993: 6). This concept of need, or quasi-need, is a key one in modern-day language didactics; in fact, the creation in the learner of the need, or desire to know, is the first of the seven pedagogical steps³⁰ that *FLE* teachers should follow.

In the area of textbooks too Comenius was ahead of his time. For him, these were an essential element of language-learning and they needed to be readily understandable so that the learner could engage in self-study without constant recourse

³⁰ See Part Three: 192.

to the schoolmaster (Caravolas, 1984b: 19). Indeed, in the last school of which he was the Principal, at Saros Patak in 1650, Comenius reduced his fundamental principles for efficient education to three:

1. Proceed by stages (*Omnia gradatim*).
2. Examine everything oneself (...) [what Comenius called, in the etymological sense of the word, 'autopsy'].
3. Act on one's own impulsion: 'autopraxy'. This requires, with reference to all that is presented to the intellect, the memory, the tongue and the hand, that the pupils shall themselves seek, discover, discuss, do and repeat, without slacking, by their own efforts – the teachers being left merely with the task of seeing whether what is to be done is done, and done as it should be.

(Bovet, 1943: 35)

This notion of encouraging learner autonomy (re)entered the domain of *FLE* not long before the end of the twentieth century and is at the heart of current *FLE* thinking. For a deeper understanding of the way in which Comenius viewed textbooks as a vital language-learning tool as well as evidence of his 'learning is fun' approach, I would cite his *Orbis Sensualium Pictus*, published in 1658. It is the very first illustrated language textbook. Bilingual (Latin-German), limited to 3,500 lexical items (Comenius once again foreshadows twentieth century language didactics specialists by his notion of a finite number of 'functional' lexical items to be acquired by the learner), this textbook provides names of concrete objects, which are numbered with figures and refer back to illustrations of those objects³¹. Consultation of Caravolas (1984b: 18) enables one to conclude that Comenius had what could be termed a 'professional' approach towards language-learning. By that I mean that he did not consider that teachers or pupils should decide on course content; but rather that was the responsibility of the creators of textbooks and pedagogical material. Furthermore, Comenius had a needs-based approach in that for him learning a language signified familiarity with the basic lexical elements, or 'primary words', as well as with the basic rules of grammar and syntax. For me, there is yet another area in which the Czechoslovakian philosopher prefigures

³¹ The first five editions are bilingual Latin – German (1658, 1659, 1662) and Latin – English (1659, 1664), whereas the 1666 edition is quadrilingual Latin – German – Italian – French.

late twentieth century pedagogues and didactics specialists. We read in Caravolas that Comenius stated that language apprenticeship must be cyclical, so that lessons are “the true development, from a specific angle, of earlier learning”³² (Caravolas, 1984b: 18). Although the textbook *Janua Linguarum Reserata*, compiled by Comenius in 1631, sometimes lacks rigour of presentation, the author was categorical in his support of strict grammatical progression and does indeed adhere to his own rules in *Vestibulum* (1632).³³ In *Schola Ludus*, a five-act play of 1656 (Laurie, 1972: 193), Comenius provides an example of his preference for dialogues, dramatisations and performance as pedagogical activities.

Comenius’s work is indeed noteworthy. Of the many innovative aspects of his theory and practice, perhaps the most salient are the focus on rapid error correction, the need to teach through correct examples (implicitly, therefore, not by what **not** to do, a mistake which some language practitioners make even to this day), limited rules but unlimited practice, and the use of images. From our vantage point in the early twenty-first century, we can state unequivocally that Comenius’s understanding of the use of images in language-learning makes him a true precursor of the late twentieth and early twenty first centuries’ reliance on the visual as a learning tool. Which informed *FLE* teacher would not find it an almost impossible task to teach French without the support of images, be they television clips, video cassettes, CD ROMs, or DVDs? In 1957, before foreign-language didactics had become as reliant on images as is now the case, that renowned Swiss genetical epistemologist Piaget³⁴ described Comenius as a contributor to the science of education and didactics as autonomous disciplines³⁵, thereby reinforcing the description that the nineteenth century French historian Michelet had given of the Czechoslovakian philosopher as the Galileo of Pedagogy. Piaget has highlighted the innovativeness of Comenius’s contribution to Western thought: “Thinkers and philosophers, from Montaigne and Rabelais to Descartes and Leibniz, had likewise made profound remarks about education, but only as corollaries to their

³² My translation of “(...) le vrai développement, sous un aspect particulier, des études antérieures”.

³³ Caravolas mentions a certain graduation from the comparison of adjectives, followed by verbs of action, qualificative and numeral adjectives (1984a: 153-158).

³⁴ Given Piaget’s extensive research in the field of cognitive development (in this particular context I am thinking of his scholarship on language production and thought as analysed in his 1923 work *Le Langage et la pensée*) and the influence that he had on the science of psychology in the twentieth century, his opinion merits consideration (Piaget 1896-1980).

³⁵ “[T]his metaphysician with his dreams of a complete knowledge of all things contributed, when he wrote *The Great Didactic* and his specialized treatises, to the creation of a science of education and a theory of teaching, considered as independent disciplines” (Piaget, 1993: 12-13).

main ideas. Not only was Comenius the first to conceive a full-scale science of education but, let it be repeated, he made it the very core of a ‘pansophy’ which, in his thinking, was to constitute a general philosophic system” (Piaget, 1993: 1-2). Piaget rightly reminds us that the essential differences between the educational philosophy of Comenius and that of the mid 1950s, is that we no longer believe that metaphysics can enable us to understand the development of the learner or of man as a social being; “we have put a series of separate sciences in the place of simple speculation” (Piaget, 1993: 4). “Notwithstanding this difference in method”, Piaget continues, “Comenius may undoubtedly be considered as one of the precursors of the genetic idea in developmental psychology, and as the founder of a system of progressive instruction adjusted to the stage of development the pupil has reached” (*ibid*). This is praise indeed, and in many respects well deserved³⁶ but which, with the benefit of hindsight, one might do well to temper³⁷. After all, Comenius, in his insistence that all languages followed the same grammatical rules and his consequent reliance on mother-tongue imitation, stated that ‘vulgar’ languages like Czechoslovakian, French, German, Italian, or Hungarian should be learned orally through usage as one learns one’s mother tongue, but that ‘scholarly’ languages such as Latin and Greek should be learned in the same way in which one learns to write one’s own language. His desire for constant reference to the learner’s mother tongue led him to advocate translation (both from the foreign text into the mother tongue and vice versa) as the ideal pedagogical activity. Although Comenius was not suggesting this for vernacular languages, would it not be logical that once those same languages acquired greater status, warranting therefore a more scholarly approach in their manner of teaching, they too would become subjects of translation and Comenius’s wish that languages learned in order to interact with neighbouring peoples would no longer be taught through usage but rather through translation?

³⁶ Often dubbed ‘the father of education’, Comenius has continued to be lauded. In 1992, UNESCO created the Comenius Medal, which is awarded to leaders in literacy and education, and the biennial Aurolog Awards, the Comenius Medal for innovation in foreign-language learning.

³⁷ Indeed, Piaget sounded one such a cautionary note (albeit from a different standpoint) when he wrote: “Nothing is easier, or more dangerous, than to treat an author of 300 years ago as a modern and claim to find in him the origins of contemporary or recent trends of thought. (...) Comenius could (...) be represented either as a precursor of evolutionary theory, genetic psychology, teaching methods based on child psychology, functional education and international education; or as a metaphysician who had no idea of the requirements of experimental psychological or even educational research, and who substituted the discussion of ideas for the analysis of facts. Yet all these extreme judgments would be incorrect. The real problem is to find in Comenius’s writings (...) not what is comparable with modern trends, to the neglect of the rest, but what makes the vital unity of the thinking of the great Czech specialist in theory and practice; and to compare this with what we know and want today ” (Piaget, 1993: 1). Such an analysis of “what makes the vital unity” of Comenius’s thinking does not fall within the scope of this research. My aim has rather been to draw a certain number of comparisons “with what we know and want today”.

Although I have chosen to trace the teaching of foreign languages back to their very inception because of a desire to present a more complete context, the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries are the customary starting point for any assessment of the evolution of language didactics. Much of what follows will be familiar to practitioners trained in *FLE* and provides context to aspects of the model explored in Part Three. It was during the eighteenth century that the Grammar-Translation Method acquired the elevated status for the teaching of foreign languages that would enable it to predominate in the century that followed (Puren, 1988: 66). I would recall briefly that the classical mode of language teaching consisted in learning grammatical rules that were then applied through translation from the mother tongue into the second/foreign language. These sentences were chosen to teach the pupil particular grammatical points that the latter then had to memorise. As already indicated, this was, then, a ‘deductive’ methodology. Translation from the first into the second language was adopted as the essential pedagogical activity precisely because this allowed the approach to be a deductive one (Puren, 1988: 66); the very nature of translation from the second into the first language can facilitate only an ‘inductive’ approach towards the mastery of grammatical rules.

One needs to ask why the classical approach, which had emerged to teach Latin and Greek specifically, was applied to the teaching of modern foreign languages. Mackey contends that it was in order to impose on the pupil a certain mental discipline (1972: 17), an objective which, as we have seen (Part One: 15-16), found favour with the Renaissance Humanists. This may well be true, and indeed any activity designed to foster the intellectual acuity of the learner would by definition enhance the intellectual reputation of that learner. One can also imagine that it was, quite simply, a matter of habit. A language system, and one which had already held sway for numerous years, was already in place. For change to occur, there needs to be the will for such change, and the energy to carry it out. Furthermore, it would seem logical that the classical model should be adopted as a means of conferring a certain nobility on the activity of teaching and learning modern foreign languages. We know that only those individuals from families with social status and standing had access to the study of Latin and Greek. What better way, then, to elevate modern foreign languages from their uneasy status of vernacular tongues to something more aristocratic and meaningful?

It would be misleading to suggest that the deductive approach alone existed at this time. Whereas the Grammar-Translation Method was extremely popular and had become the standard method of teaching languages by the first half of the nineteenth century (Titone, 1968: 29), there was thereafter a move away from that to the ‘inductive’ method³⁸. Puren indicates that the ‘inductive’ method of translation from the second language into the mother tongue found favour as a means to perfect mastery of the latter and in response to a certain dissatisfaction with the Grammar-Translation Method (1988: 27). Indeed, during the first half of the nineteenth century, there were those who abandoned the ‘deductive’ in favour of the ‘inductive’ approach: Jacotot (for French) and Robertson (for English) are two such examples. What one can state unequivocally is that the combination of grammatical rules and of translation flourished from about 1840 onwards³⁹. Indeed, (as will be seen in Part Two), so great has the influence of this approach been that there are educational establishments in which major elements of it are still retained.

To understand better the weight of this legacy, it is important to grasp the fundamental essence of this method. The objectives are to enable the learner to read works of literature written in the target language, to develop the latter’s intellectual capacities and ability to memorise, and to train literary translators into and from the mother tongue, thereby encouraging mastery of the latter. The consequence of these objectives is that firstly reading and then writing are prioritised, with oral comprehension and expression being subordinated to grammar and translation. Language is, then, conceived of as being translation and the correct application of grammatical rules. In this essentially intellectual activity, the learner’s ultimate objective must be mastery of the morphology and syntax of the foreign language. In this regard, he must memorise verbal conjugations and vocabulary lists. Given the nature of the texts used for such language apprenticeship, which as we have seen is essentially literary, the culture of the foreign language becomes synonymous with literature and fine arts. Thus, in comparison with any other language register, literary language is elevated to a superior status, and access to the foreign culture is deemed to be possible

³⁸ The existence of textbooks containing translation exercises both from second to first language and vice versa, indicate that, in practice, both deductive and inductive methods existed simultaneously (Germain, 1993: 102).

³⁹ Indeed, according to Germain (1993: 102), it reached the United States in the nineteenth century where it grew rapidly in popularity, under the label of the ‘Prussian method’, presumably this refers back to Ollendorf (Jespersen, 1928).

only through the study of literary texts. Such an approach is essentially instructivist: the teacher is the dominant figure in the classroom situation because it is he who possesses the knowledge and who knows what 'the right answer' is. It is he who selects which texts are to be studied, who compiles questions to test the learner's comprehension of those texts and who will gauge what links, if any, can be established between the latter's personal experience and the passages for analysis. He it is who asks the questions, who assigns the tasks ('Read the second paragraph', for instance), who furnishes the 'right answer' should the pupil be found lacking in this regard, who explains the grammatical structures encountered, and who sets the exercises. It is abundantly clear that there is little place for learner initiative. Since, as we have seen, the starting point for the teaching activity is to be found in literary texts, the latter hold pride of place as pedagogical supports. So it is that pronunciation of the second language receives scant attention. The vocabulary, morphology, syntax, and grammatical structures taught are literary because of the pedagogical material employed. Nor is there any true progression in the difficulty of this material since texts are selected in accordance with their value as examples of 'good' literature and arguably literary texts contain a certain degree of difficulty. Course content is not organised according to any system of progression in linguistic elements to be taught, but is rather the function of the grammatical points raised by any one selected text.

When the target language is presented in this way through literary texts, with translation as the technique to enable the learner to comprehend the meanings of words, one can speak of 'explicit grammar teaching'. Such an approach entails, moreover, recourse to a meta-language, by which the teacher employs such terms as transitive and intransitive verbs, prepositions and the like to 'communicate' to the learner information on the target language. This explicit grammar teaching is, by definition, either deductive or inductive. Deductive means teaching the pupil the grammatical rules first and then introducing him to their practical application, a move then from the general to the particular. Inductive, however, indicates conversely a motion that shifts from the particular to the general; here, in an action that resides in examples first and the rule after, learners are made aware of certain instances of a grammatical rule being applied before even knowing what that rule might be. When the inductive approach goes hand in hand with explicit grammar teaching, in the first instance the teacher provides numerous examples of the application of a particular grammatical rule and highlights

the universal applicability of that rule only afterwards. Lastly, implicit grammar teaching could obviously co-exist only with an inductive approach. It should, of course, be pointed out that ‘implicit grammar teaching’ is a purely metaphorical term. By definition, ‘implicit’ and ‘teaching’ create a paradox. As Germain states, because there is no teaching of grammatical rules and their applicability, just frequent manipulation of grammatical forms with the aim of the pupil interiorising them, ‘implicit’ grammar can only be referring to the inductive method (1993: 105).

We have seen, then, that the Grammar-Translation Method of foreign-language teaching relies essentially on explicit grammar instruction and a deductive approach, whereby both grammatical rules and the exceptions to those rules are explained and practised. Given the above, it is logical that instruction should be given in the first language. Furthermore, we have noted that exercises are limited to translation, that the teaching dynamic is a top-down, one-way relationship that moves from teacher (empowered by knowing ‘the right answer’) down to the learners (whose mistakes are generally unacceptable), and who are neither encouraged to show any initiative nor to interact with each other in the classroom. Besse (1985: 270) criticises the Grammar-Translation Method as being inefficient. He maintains that, even after five or six hours of classes during eight to ten years, the pupil has limited linguistic competence, even in writing. Quite rightly, in my view, Besse posits that a good grasp of grammatical rules is no guarantee of the ability to apply them in practice. Although translation exercises as they exist nowadays undoubtedly include lexical fields that are significantly more relevant than the legendary “la plume de ma tante” type of sentence that Titone was criticising in 1968, they still tend to be artificially fabricated passages or sentences and hinge on the dubious consensus that equivalence between words of different languages in fact exists, a criticism that Besse levelled at the method. As indicated earlier (page 23), one of the main reasons justifying this method was that it aided better grammatical mastery of the mother tongue. I would agree with Germain who states that it is more probable that, rather than pupils acquiring a better command of their own language, they would more likely become sensitised to differences and similarities existing between it and the second language (1993: 107). His contention that, rather than achieving its main aim of developing the intellect, the Grammar-Translation Method requires that the learner already possess certain well developed intellectual faculties, seems justified (1993: 107). In my view, the most compelling criticism directed at this method through

which language is conceived of as being a set of neatly classifiable rules and exceptions, is one that Richards and Rodgers (1986) have highlighted: that such a method lacks entirely any theoretical basis, be it in linguistics, psychology or the science of education. At the close of the nineteenth century, then, modern foreign languages had succeeded in commanding respect as subjects worthy of scholarship by moulding the methodology and practice of their teaching on the centuries-old pedagogical customs for Latin and Greek. Ironically, in what Puren has called a “ricochet effect” (1988: 33), this very means of commanding esteem was shortly to be threatened.

Indeed, the last quarter of the nineteenth century witnessed serious consideration of the need to reform foreign-language teaching. Moves were afoot to place pedagogy in this domain on more solid ground. Gouin’s serious enquiry into more efficient language teaching in the 1880s, the advent of phonetic methods, the tentative emergence of the Direct Method at the end of the nineteenth and beginning of the twentieth centuries, and the desire of pedagogues such as Sweet, Jespersen and Palmer during the early years of the twentieth century, to render language-teaching more ‘scientific’, left a legacy that, because it is vital to an understanding of contemporary language didactics, deserves at least some brief analysis.

Gouin’s observations on, and recommendations for, efficient language-learning are sufficiently revolutionary in nature, and have historically become such an integral part of enquiry into language didactics, that they merit at the very least a cursory mention. Gouin’s book *L’art d’enseigner et d’étudier les langues*, which was published in Paris in 1880, is well known as the result of his personal observation of the stark contrast that separated his own painful learning of German over many years at school and his complete lack of ability in understanding and speaking that language upon his arrival at a German university, contrasted with his two-and-a-half year old nephew, whose lexical acquisitions after a visit to a mill proved to be a felicitous experience. The key to his nephew’s success, according to Gouin, lies quite simply in the way that a child learns language: the child conceives of and orders his perceptions in accordance with the logical unfolding of events. Talking is followed by action. In this way the child reproduces not what he has seen but his conception of what he has seen. As the child acts out what he has observed, he accompanies each action with its description in words and, Gouin emphasises, the kernel of this description is the verb. What is of interest here is that, unlike any of his predecessors, (Jacotot, Robertson, or Ollendorf,

for example), Gouin places his linguistic approach within a theoretical framework, based on psychological principles. Here we are seeing the seeds being sown for didactics to grow into a science.

Gouin places language-learning within the realm of psychology when he states that human beings learn second or foreign languages because they need “to talk to and understand each other, to exchange ideas” (Gouin, 1880: 2). Advocating the supremacy of the spoken over the written word (1880: 223), he also positions language-learning within an ideological sphere by attaching to it a humanitarian, moral value as the means of crossing barriers between people (idem). For this thinker, language is the most direct and immediate product of the human mind and thus “the theory of its development is essentially, and could only ever be, a chapter of psychology” (1880: 75). As stated earlier, at the heart of language is the verb, which is always to be found in a clause. Unlike earlier methods based on nouns, Gouin’s method, then, centres on the verb. Furthermore, in his systematised study, he posits that there are three types of language – objective, subjective, and figurative or symbolic (1880: 44). Unusually for his epoch, Gouin believes that it is “la langue usuelle”, language in common usage, which provides the most solid basis for language-learning (ibid: 44). As further proof of his endeavours to create a more scientific framework for his analysis, one can highlight the distinctions of a linguistic nature that Gouin establishes⁴⁰. He classifies nouns in two categories: general and specific. Furthermore, in the criticism that he levels at contemporary philologists, he states that there are also two categories of verbs: he distinguishes verbs of purpose from verbs of manner. Following a train of thought that is more linked to human psychology, Gouin indicates that the human mind perceives time according to various time-frames, which leads him to conclude that, far from only three verb tenses (past, present, and future) as stated by contemporary grammarians, there are indeed six: the duration of a day, a week, a month, a year, a lifetime and eternity (1880: 242).

This line of enquiry led Gouin to fashion what is known as his famous ‘Series Method’. These series are all firmly anchored in everyday life, although towards the end of the series he does demonstrate how his technique can be applied to the study of classical authors, such as Virgil, Homer, Herodotus, Tacitus and La Fontaine (1880: 365-366, 371). I highlight this as the first example of a theory of didactics which is

⁴⁰ Kelly rightly points to Gouin’s analysis as constituting a veritable linguistic revelation since, until then, all grammatical analysis had been based solely on Latin (Kelly, 1969: 227).

applicable to the teaching of literature. The methodology established by Gouin is based on his observations of how the child acquires the mother tongue. This, he argues, is quite simply the result of a principle of order. Language acquisition in the mother tongue, Gouin observes, begins with the mental representation of real and experienced events, and not with abstract notions as implied by the study of grammatical rules, declinations or verb conjugations. Gouin's observation of his nephew convinced him that the child orders and transforms these mental representations into knowledge by adhering to rules. The principle guiding this ordering is, notes Gouin, twofold - succession in time and the relationship between cause and effect (1880: 22). Furthermore, Gouin continues, when moving from one event to the following one, the child does not proceed from one word to the next, but from one clause to the next, at the heart of which is the verb:

The child's first word, even if it be monosyllabic, is not a simple word, but a sentence⁴¹, a complete clause: its imperfect expression provides full information on his judgement. A child of three conquers and assimilates the mother tongue, not word by word, but sentence by sentence, clause by clause (...).

(Gouin, 1880: 55)

Certain words that the child uses are 'borrowed' from responses to his questions, which are themselves prompted by what he is observing, although the majority are words that he has already acquired in the course of ordering previous perceptions. In this way, Gouin indicates, the new is grafted on to the old. It is the ear that is the language receptor, according to Gouin, and not the eye as suggested by the way in which the school system favours recourse to the printed word.

We have noted the innovative approach and attempt to place language-learning on a scientific basis that Gouin's study represents from a theoretical standpoint. Yet can it be said that it influenced language-teaching practice in general and *FLE* more particularly? There is some consensus on this point. Whereas Kelly maintains that Gouin's Series Method drew few followers (Kelly, 1969: 115), Titone considers that it took the United States and England by storm as a result of the 1892 English translation

⁴¹ This is echoed by Vygotsky some eighty years later: "In mastering speech, the child starts from one word (...). In regard to meaning, on the other hand, the first word of the child is a whole sentence" (1962: 125).

The Art of Teaching and Studying Languages (Titone, 1968: 33). Germain appears to suggest that Gouin's immigration to the States a year after the publication of the French text in 1881 would support the notion that his theories were well accepted there (Germain, 1993: 122) and cites Puren's reference to an article on Gouin in a German revue of 1895 (Puren, 1988: 108), indicating by that a fairly wide awareness of his work (idem). Most importantly, Darian traces the appearance in the United States of numerous textbooks for teaching English as a foreign language back to Gouin and his methodology and to the use made of the latter by Goldberger in that country, where Gouin's method became the most popular and widespread manner of teaching English to non-mother-tongue speakers at the beginning of the twentieth century (1972: 50, 55, 75). It is also Darian who implies that it was the questioning by the applied linguist Fries of Gouin's linking first- and second-language learning processes in a system of linguistic universality that led Fries to pioneer the audio-oral method in the States (Darian, 1972: 93).

Other scholars concur on the impact of Gouin's analysis. The historian of language didactics Kelly, for example, detects in Gouin's 'spontaneous acting out' the first example of what in contemporary language didactics parlance we would call 'simulation' activities (1969: 125). According to the didactics specialist Stern, Gouin has the merit of having introduced into language teaching the science of linguistics (1983: 52). Stern points to the importance of having drawn attention to the relationship between language usage, thought processes and action, whereby linguistic organisation is deemed to be essentially semantic in nature, hence Gouin's 'revolutionary' insistence on the clause, and not on isolated words, as the unit for language study (1983: 153). Stern rightly points to the merit of Gouin's attempt to understand the phenomenon of language with the aim of formulating pedagogical guidelines (1983: 154). Germain elucidates this further by stating that the importance of Gouin's work resides in the nineteenth century thinker's analysis of what constitutes language, what language-learning entails, and how best then to teach a second language (Germain, 1993: 123). Gouin's Series Method may not have lasted much beyond the earlier years of the twentieth century but at a time when no theory existed on the nature of language, he it was who attempted the creation of such a theory. Indeed, in this regard, Germain's comment is insightful:

It should be borne in mind that the *Cours de linguistique générale* by the Geneva-born linguist Ferdinand de Saussure, who is considered to be the father of modern Linguistics, appeared in Europe only in 1916, and that *Language* by the American linguist Leonard Bloomfield, the founder of structural or behavioural linguistics, only came out in 1933.

(Germain, 1993: 123)

In fact, it would appear that Gouin himself was aware of the ‘newness’ of his undertaking when he wrote: “our linguistic method is the first to begin by drawing up a theory, the first that is able to incorporate a theory, and the first to dare to become a system” (1880: 12). From the standpoint of this thesis, and in answer to the question posed a few paragraphs earlier, the merit of Gouin’s enquiry is in part what has **not** been pointed out by others: it is quite simply the fact that he delved deeply into the true nature of language and its acquisition, and only thereafter did he elaborate a method designed as a function of what he perceived language and language-learning to be. Crucial to the development of foreign-language teaching is that in this undertaking Gouin took the revolutionary step of highlighting the psyche of the individual in the learning process:

Self-representation – let us not forget this psychological fact. This is the starting-point of the natural method, and it will be the first step of our linguistic system. We shall begin neither by declensions nor by conjugations, nor by recitation of abstract rules, nor by mumbling dozens of roots or columns of vocabulary; we shall begin by the self-representation of real events and feelings, events perceived previously by us and transformed into the constituent parts of our individuality through reflection and conception.

(1880: 16-17)

In my endeavour to understand better the status of contemporary *FLE* teaching by giving a brief, chronologically ordered overview of language teaching in general with specific reference to how this may have impacted on *FLE*, I come now to the Direct Method. This method was used principally in France and Germany in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, although it also found favour with some

language practitioners in the United States⁴². Its origins are the direct result of a dissatisfaction with, and rejection of, the inefficiency of the Grammar-Translation Method, based as this was upon dead-language learning that prioritised literary texts, (Part One: 23-27). It would be misguided not to acknowledge that the Direct Method is directly reliant on the oldest of the so-called ‘natural’ methods of language-learning, those methods that, as we have already seen with Montaigne and Locke (13-15), are based on observation of the mechanisms of mother-tongue acquisition. Furthermore, a genuine example of the Direct Method for French existed from 1576 onwards at London in the shape of the publication by de Sainliens (alias Holyband), the popularity of which is borne out by the nineteen re-editions of this method that came out between 1576 and 1639 (Vinay, 1968: 695). However, even when the Direct Method textbook for learning Latin compiled by Chompré in the eighteenth century is factored in, as in Titone’s analysis (Titone, 1968: 17), up until the late eighteenth century one can speak only of sporadic instances of the use of the Direct Method, and not of its generalised application.

With Gouin’s conception of linguistic and psychological realities, we have seen the first example of a pedagogue placing his methodology on a scientific footing. A similar awareness of the need for scientific theory to infuse pedagogy is also present with the Direct Method. According to Richards and Rodgers (1986: 9), the theoretical basis for this method is to be found in the 1884 work of the German psychologist Franke⁴³. This study provides the theoretical justification for a monolingual approach towards second-language teaching by positing a direct link between linguistic form and meaning⁴⁴. To use a more psychological term, we are dealing here with association: association of form and meaning - of the noun and object (or a picture of the object, or a gesture)-, and association of ideas, whereby unknown abstract notions are associated with already familiar words.

⁴² I refer here to authors such as Sauveur (*Causeries avec mes élèves*, Boston, 1875), Berlitz (the founder of the first Berlitz Language School in Providence in 1878), and Emile de Sauzé (*The Cleveland Plan*, 1929).

⁴³ Franke’s scientific approach, as evidenced by his structural syllabus for practical language-learning and his work on practical phonetics (specifically for learning French) indicate a desire to systematise knowledge. One can assume that this aspect of his work also infused the Direct Method.

⁴⁴ Arguably, the existence of this associative link between form and meaning had already been advanced by Comenius (cf. pages 16-22). See Part Two: 117, footnote 44 for information on the Delft Method.

The import of the Direct Method resides in the insistence that the objective of language-learning is to communicate, which is why the learner must be able not only to answer questions but also to ask them. To this effect, he must be trained to think automatically in the second language. The four language competences are developed but oral skills are prioritised, with attention being given to pronunciation from the very beginning of the language apprenticeship. Reading and writing skills are developed after speaking. It is appropriate here to illustrate, albeit briefly, the nature of reading according to the tenets of the Direct Method by quoting Godart's article of 1903:

Direct reading [reveals] immediately to him [the learner] the meaning of the passage. At a glance, he covers the sentence read, or rather he ceases to see in order to hear it. (...) He is in the position of someone who understands a sentence spoken in a foreign language without being in a position to reconstitute it in detail and without having any clear idea of the elements of which it is made up. Direct reading thus substitutes an instantaneous, synthesised impression for the slow, analytical work of grammatical reading.

(149-150)

I have highlighted this aspect of the Direct Method because, importantly, it provides us with the seeds of what was later to become 'reading for gist' and, more recently, the second of the Seven Pedagogical Steps in *FLE* (Global Comprehension), as retained from the proposed tertiary level model (Part Three: 192).

With the Direct Method, although reading, and more particularly, writing skills are taught from the start of language apprenticeship, hierarchically they are subordinate to oral skills. In fact, writing is conceived of as a scriptural form of oral language. Since the philosophy underpinning this method is that language is a tool of communication, the language taught is that of everyday, common usage, as spoken and written by native speakers. With this approach any course content of a cultural nature is limited to geographical and historico-sociological contexts; literature is no longer the exclusive domain of culture. Concomitantly, assessment examines oral and written language usage and not the knowledge of grammatical rules. Errors are corrected in three different ways and, importantly, the aim of all three is to encourage the learner to correct his mistake himself. The teacher can encourage the learner to choose between his flawed response and another, correct one, or secondly, he can repeat the pupil's

utterance but with a hesitant, questioning intonation indicating that there is an error, or lastly, the teacher can repeat the pupil's response but stop immediately before the mistake. Of relevance here for future developments in foreign-language didactics is the manner in which error correction is conceived, that is the express desire to avoid demoralising the pupil, an emerging respect for the learner in the language acquisition process, and an evident awareness of human psychology as impacting on this process.

As already indicated, the learner is trained to think in the second language as soon as possible, which is why there is no memorisation on his part of long lists of vocabulary but rather the manipulation of language in complete sentences. To this end, the learner must participate actively in the language-learning process, answering the teacher's questions, formulating his own questions, and reading out loud. The teacher does not explain, but shows with the aid of objects, illustrations or paraphrase⁴⁵, and although the apprenticeship process is firmly in the hands of the teacher, the latter nevertheless encourages the pupil to take the initiative where possible. Given the fact that all activities take place in the target language, it is of course questionable as to how much initiative the learner can reasonably be expected to take. It is clear, then, that with this oral, communication-based model of language-learning, it is the teacher who serves as the linguistic model for the learner, with the textbook(s) being relegated to the background. The success of such a method can arguably be described as relying on the teacher's competence in the target language, on his skill as a communicator, and, more prosaically, on his ability, time and willingness to source appropriate pedagogical material such as pictures, maps, and so on.

With regard to the linguistic content envisaged by the communication-oriented Direct Method, it is situational or discussion-based, and not centred on linguistic structures. Consequently, the latter are subordinated to vocabulary, which, as I have already indicated, is delineated by everyday language usage. In the early days of the Direct Method, lexical choices appear to have been largely circumscribed by convenience (notably the availability of pedagogical supports) and intuition on the part of teachers and textbook compilers; clear evidence of organisational principles underpinning linguistic content is absent. In fact, Richards and Rodgers describe the Direct Method in dismissive terms as being "the product of enlightened amateurs" (1986: 10). Such flaws were, however, remedied many years later, when certain

⁴⁵ Diller's presentation of the Direct Method is detailed and informative in this regard (Diller, 1971).

textbook compilers ordered situational-based, lexical content around grammatical structures according to varying degrees of difficulty. With *Langue et langage* for instance, which is arguably one of the most representative, later examples of the Direct Method, published in the United States in 1964, there is a clear organisational principle of grammatical structures in tandem with lexical content. When the teaching of these structures is explicit, it is inductive (specific examples first before intuiting the general rule). Pedagogical activities are confined almost exclusively to the teacher question/pupil answer format, although for the more advanced stages of language apprenticeship, this may evolve into a pupil/pupil dynamic and can also involve conversations and simulations. Dictations and paragraph writing are also advocated. Undoubtedly the hallmark of this method is the exclusive use in the learning situation of the target language, through which the teacher leads the learner ‘directly’ to that language, thereby circumventing any detour via the mother tongue. This is, then, the ‘direct’ antithesis of the Grammar-Translation Method, by which access to the second language occurs solely through another medium - the first language.

But does the Direct Method work? I have already hinted at certain limitations. Yet its continued existence in private (and expensive) establishments of adult learning (such as Berlitz language schools) must lead one to believe that it does. However, in that situation the learners are unquestionably motivated. The Direct Method is debatably more difficult to apply within a state school system in particular, and to a certain extent, a tertiary institution context. It presupposes, of course, that all language teachers have native competence, which is less frequent than one might like to imagine. Moreover, the Direct Method relies on a fundamentally flawed assumption: that learners have the same amount of time to learn a second language as they did for their mother tongue, and, concomitantly, an equal degree of exposure. The exclusive use of the target language in the learning situation can prove time-wasting and energy-consuming, as the teacher resorts to exhausting clowning or longwinded paraphrases to explain what would have taken thirty seconds by adroit translation in the mother tongue⁴⁶. That being said, the Direct Method (which is possibly the only appropriate approach with learners who do not have any reasonable competence in a shared language) has contributed greatly to developments in language-teaching practice and much of what takes place in *FLE* nowadays can be traced directly back to it: the emphasis on training oral comprehension

⁴⁶ This aspect is given further attention in Part Three: 196.

and communication skills, the recourse to everyday language and common usage by native speakers, the widespread use of pedagogical supports (notably pictures, objects and narrative texts) and techniques (particularly oral questions and answers), the sensitising of the teacher to appropriate responses to learner error, and the awareness that the teacher should be communicating with the learners as far as possible by means of the target language⁴⁷.

⁴⁷ Arguably, the Direct Method achieves less in the sphere of communication than it might claim, this because communication is based on artificial, manufactured dialogues or situations; take, for instance, chapter 1 of *Langue et langage* for which the teacher holds up a series of objects and for each asks: “What is this?”, and then responds himself “It’s a book”, “It’s an exercise book” and so on. This is obviously a far cry from authentic communication.

Chapter 2 - Language in the grip of science – what, how and when

Language teaching from the middle to the late twentieth century

The 1950s⁴⁸ saw the continuation of a trend visible to a certain extent with the Direct Method as outlined above, and indeed with Gouin's Series Method before that – the desire to place non-mother-tongue language didactics on a solid, scientific footing. As a result of this motivation on the part of researchers and specialists in didactics, three mainstream currents emerged in modern foreign language didactics in the twentieth century.⁴⁹ Although this thesis does not aspire to present an exhaustive historical review of every development that has taken place in language teaching since its inception, in an attempt to understand the language-learning context, which has informed current modern foreign language teaching practice, I believe it appropriate to give a brief overview of those methods that, to my mind, have exerted a lasting influence. Any attempt to order the three mainstream currents along purely chronological lines would be hazardous since, not only is it sometimes unclear as to when exactly they began and ended, they also overlap, running occasionally in parallel. It is more logical, therefore, to adopt a content-based, rather than a linear, approach. Initially, I shall direct my attention to the first of the three mainstream currents to emerge in the twentieth century, the Integrated Approach, which integrates two theoretical constructs - the nature of language and that of language-learning - in the form of the Audio-Oral Method or A-O Method (also known as the Audio-Lingual Method or A-LM), widely used in the United States, the Structuro-Global-Audio-Visual Method, or SGAV, which was the corresponding method in favour in Europe, and Integrated Methods. These examples are relevant to my purpose because all incorporate

⁴⁸ I have omitted the Michel Thomas Method for foreign-language teaching and the Pimsleur language-learning system, because both are very restricted in focus. The former, developed in the 1950s (although patented only in 2003) is a method designed to teach only oral competence and the latter, which dates back to 1967, can be considered essentially as a system for vocabulary acquisition; both rely on translation.

⁴⁹ The 1986 study by Richards and Rodgers, *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching*, is very informative in this regard; the authors categorise clearly the methods inspired by the science of human psychology into those that concentrate on the conditions of language acquisition as opposed to those that focus on the acquisition process itself. In the former category one can place Curran's Counseling-Learning Approach, also known as Community Language Learning (1976: 53-4, 59), and Gattegno's The Silent Way (1972: 55-7), whilst Krashen and Terrell's Natural Approach (1983), Asher's Total Physical Response Method (1969: 57-61, 63, 66, 78) and Lozanov's Suggestopaedia, otherwise known as Suggestology (1979: 63-5), sit well in the second category.

linguistic and psychological notions (relative to the conditions and/or process of language acquisition).

Let us turn our attention, then, first to the United States. The main objective of the Audio-Oral method⁵⁰ is to communicate in everyday situations in the target language, hence the emphasis on the four skills of oral and written comprehension, oral and written expression. Of these four skills it is, nevertheless, oral competences that are prioritised. The written language is in second place in each lesson, and constitutes, in fact, a scriptural version of the oral language. Production, whether oral or written, follows comprehension, thus mirroring the pattern of language acquisition in the mother tongue. This, along with the order in which the four skills are acquired (oral comprehension then expression, written comprehension then expression), resembles the Direct Method, albeit more rigorously ordered, with the main difference being that lexical acquisition is greatly subordinated to syntactical structures with the A-O Method. Specific elements of the linguistic code are deemed to be essential (the difference in meaning that exists between two words that are identical but for the presence in one of an additional vowel, for instance). Language is viewed as being a set of linguistic frameworks that are acquired like habits, in other words linguistic automatisms, so that the appropriate linguistic structures are used automatically in the same manner as a reflex action. The correct linguistic structure is crucial to transmit the message to the interlocutor. The imprint of American structural linguistics, in essence descriptive, is manifest here. Each language is conceived as possessing its own system of phonology, morphology and syntax. Since semantics are barely present in this linguistic theory, it is natural that meaning is subordinate to observable linguistic form. However, what is of greater importance to subsequent developments in language

⁵⁰ Before the Second World War, the Reading Method for foreign-language learning held sway in the secondary school system, as a result of the 1920 Coleman report that advocated written comprehension as the sole objective of second or foreign language courses. With the Second World War came the realisation on the part of the American government that the Reading Method did little to produce individuals capable of speaking foreign languages; this realisation spawned the 1942-1943 ASTP (The Army Specialized Training Program), which was the result of studies undertaken by linguists, notably Yale professor Leonard Bloomfield's description of language through the use of anthropological techniques. Some twelve years later, specialists in Applied Linguistics, such as Lado, Fries, Brooks and Politzer, devised the audio-oral method. Furthermore, Skinner's theories on behaviourism and the flurry of writings that the Stimulus-Reaction-Reinforcement of Skinnerism provoked, contributed to the burgeoning influence of American Structural Linguistics. Then, the 1958 American National Defence Education Act was passed with the aim of making available significant funding for pedagogical material and summer courses to ensure that the American population would no longer be linguistically isolated from the rest of the world; the ASTP model was revived and the Audio-Oral Method rapidly replaced the Reading Method in schools.

teaching and of import to this thesis, is the association that is made between language and culture. Two of the pioneers of the A-O Method devoted several pages of their writings to the importance of the cultural aspect of language-learning, adding that their approach signified not only a comparison between the first and target languages but also between the ways of life of the speakers of those languages (Germain, 1993: 143). The A-O Method is widely known for its plethora of structural or reinforcement drills, or patterns, to the point of 'over-learning', the stage at which the pupil can enunciate correctly without needing to reflect. The conjunction of structural linguistics and behaviourism are, then, evident in this approach. Through constant practice of syntactical structures, the learner should grasp the structure by means of analogy; through frequency of application, grammatical rules are arrived at by means of induction. The learner copies the teacher's example, must react to his instructions and respond rapidly and without reflection to his questions, as if by reflex. The pupil imitates the teacher, (or the tape, if the latter is not a native speaker or bilingual), who ensures correct pronunciation and patterns of syntax. Larsen-Freeman aptly likens the teacher to the conductor of an orchestra, directing and controlling the learners' linguistic behaviour (1986: 41). It is important to note that, for the first time with the A-O and A-L Methods, the use of tape recordings by native speakers became an integral part of the pedagogical material (both in the classroom and, as a result of the ASTP, the language laboratory). At the core of the pedagogical activities is a comparative or differential linguistic analysis of the source and target languages. What is similar (both structurally and phonetically) is considered to be more accessible and is therefore introduced earlier, whereas what is dissimilar is encountered later. Each lesson begins with a dialogue that is to be memorised; arguably there is residual evidence of the Grammar-Translation Method in that each dialogue is followed by its translation, although illustrations and gestures explaining certain words of vocabulary are also authorised. Instructions on correct pronunciation are given; then follow pronunciation drills and listening comprehension exercises. Finally, each lesson ends with comprehension questions on the dialogue content. Grammatical rules can be dealt with explicitly, although, in theory, the aim is to replace grammatical explanation by encouraging in the learner an awareness of analogical functioning (Brooks, 1964: 146-147, 275). However, as noted earlier, these structures have already been discovered in the dialogue and reapplied during the comprehension (vocabulary phase). Since each language is considered to have its own linguistic system, and given that the system of the mother tongue is

deemed to interfere with that of the target language, it is recommended that the latter be used in the classroom. The teacher may, however, have recourse to translation, gestures, imitation, illustrations, and objects to convey the meaning of new elements. It is important to note that with the A-O/A-L M, there is a similar lack of authenticity to that found with the Direct Method: because these language drills aim at inculcating certain linguistic structures and rendering patterns of syntax or particular grammatical points automatic, they are by definition not situational⁵¹. It is true, however, that once the automatisms have been acquired, there are conversation exercises during which these automatisms must be transposed to the context of the learner. There is, furthermore, a narrative text (written comprehension) but, in my view, since this is strictly delineated by the linguistic structures taught during the earlier part of the lesson, it too lacks authenticity. With the chain drills used with this method we see the beginnings of inter-learner interaction, which is to become increasingly important in the latter years of the twentieth century. Such interaction as there is, however, remains firmly under the control of the teacher, whose role involves to a large extent correcting pupil error (in pronunciation and linguistic patterns), since pupil error is not tolerated by the A O/A-L M.

With this brief overview of the Audio-Oral/Audio-Lingual Method, we have been able to detect the presence of certain elements that would later become an integral part of foreign language teaching, and also indicate what might be some of its weaknesses. Various scholars have pinpointed flaws in the A-O/A-L M. Allen, for instance, maintains that the method functions well at beginner level but not at intermediate or advanced levels because of the repetitiveness of the pattern drills (1983: 27). Rivers observes that whereas learners could respond automatically to questions in a classroom situation, they were incapable of responding to those same questions outside of the classroom, indicating thereby that linguistic transfer had not truly taken place⁵². Such criticisms of the (in)efficacy of this method have tended to be intuitive and subjective. Chomsky was at the forefront of the attack. With his generative

⁵¹ Furthermore, in my view, there is a contradiction between the theoretical framework and the reality of pattern practice. Brooks (1964: 154), quoting Comenius in support of his argument, states that language acquisition takes place more easily through usage than rules and that rules simply confirm what has been acquired through usage. Whilst pattern practices evidently do not contain explicit grammatical explanations, they nevertheless drill grammatical structures in such a context-absent way as to distort the very notion of usage that their theoretical proponents intended them to promote.

⁵² These observations abound in her 1964 study *The Psychologist and the Foreign Language Teacher* (University of Chicago Press, Chicago).

transformational grammar, which is in stark contrast to Bloomfieldian linguistic structuralism⁵³, Chomsky contended that the concentration of the latter on linguistic phenomena was reductionist and encouraged a superficial understanding of language. Indeed, Chomsky's well-known example of "*la crainte des parents*"⁵⁴ which is quoted as proof of the inability of linguistic structuralism to render subtleties, seems irrefutable in this regard. From the psychological standpoint, Chomsky's 1959 stinging attack⁵⁵ on Skinner's *Verbal Behavior* of 1957 countered the latter's suggestion that language acquisition is the result of conditioning to external stimuli by affirming that linguistic acquisition is the fruit of an innate, universal process, whether in the mother tongue, first or second language,. Admittedly, the scope of such reflection was limited, since it sought to demonstrate whether the A-O/A-V method was, or was not, better than the traditional Grammar-Translation Method. Of greater importance, however, is that there is an attempt to quantify seriously, (one is tempted to say 'scientifically'), the outcomes of a particular teaching method.

In an attempt to evaluate the current status of the teaching of French as a modern foreign language I have been reviewing the evolution of language teaching in general. During this review, we have seen that the Audio-Oral or Audio-Lingual Method that evolved in the United States, contained certain elements of interest and relevance to an analysis of *FLE* in contemporary South Africa (in particular, a sound theoretical framework and concomitant desire to test the method empirically, indicating thereby a genuine interest in the outcomes of the method). Of special relevance is that it would appear that the American A-O/A-L model also constituted an additional impetus to the development in France of a model for the teaching of French to non-mother-tongue speakers. It would, of course, be erroneous to suggest that some kind of intercontinental rivalry alone was at the root of the burgeoning interest in *FLE*, which began during the middle of the last century in France. However, French central government's desire to promote the continued dissemination of the French language abroad specifically to counter the increasingly firm hold that English was acquiring globally after the end of

⁵³ See page 39.

⁵⁴ This means both "fear of parents" and "the parents' fear"; it is situational context alone that enables the listener to grasp which of the two possible meanings is being conveyed. Linguistic drills as used in A-O learning overlook the importance of such context and the method can, then, rightly be accused of a certain superficiality.

⁵⁵ Chomsky, N. 1959 "A Review of B.F. Skinner's *Verbal Behavior*". *Language* 35/1 Pages 26-58

the second World War⁵⁶, explains to a large extent the genesis of SGAV, the French cousin of the American A-O/A-L. A brief portrait of SGAV is necessary within the framework of this thesis, since not only will this contribute to an understanding of the current status of language teaching in general but of *FLE* more specifically, since I would contend that many researchers into the didactics of *FLE* would place the origins of *FLE* with SGAV and the production of *Voix et Images de France* or *VIF*⁵⁷.

The SGAV arose, then, at the behest of the French National Ministry of Education; that body charged a commission (comprising Guberina, Rivenc and Renard) with the task of defining a mainly lexical corpus for elementary French. The result was the 1962 VIF which in turn fathered the 1963 course for eight to eleven year-old learners of French – *Bonjour Line*⁵⁸. Language-learning is perceived as mainly spoken communication within everyday situations (Besse, 1985: 44), a viewpoint that largely holds true for *FLE* half a century later and which has been described by the didactician Besse as “une linguistique de la parole en situation” or “linguistics of words in context” (Besse, 1985: 42). Furthermore, whereas the Grammar–Translation Method of language-learning co-existed, one might almost say harmoniously, with the AO/AV Direct Method until the middle of the last century, the manner in which SGAV integrated notions and applicability of communication, made that co-existence less harmonious⁵⁹. SGAV aimed to teach the four skills of oral and written comprehension, and oral and written expression but prioritised the oral. In this way, language apprenticeship was purely oral during the first sixty or seventy hours, with reading being introduced after lesson 32, and writing (considered by Guberina⁶⁰ as a purely

⁵⁶ See Gougenheim, G. et al. (1962) *L'élaboration du français fondamental* (1^{er} degré). Didier: Paris (page 9).

⁵⁷ Personal communication from Professor Jacques Cortés via Dr Olivier Fléchais (November 2003). It is logical to assume that scholars of *FLE* situate the genesis of their discipline with the emergence of *VIF* because of the way in which language apprenticeship is viewed, a viewpoint that is similar to that underpinning present-day *FLE*, i.e., language as mainly verbal communication within an everyday situation.

⁵⁸ *VIF* spawned courses for many other European languages. The 1971 *Dialogue-Canada*, which is designed to teach French to Anglophone Canadian civil servants, can be considered to be the North American equivalent of SGAV because of its similar theoretical framework and pedagogical activities.

⁵⁹ See Part Three: 163. I would contend that the kinds of debates during which pedagogues and didacticians interrogated established practices at the Cerisy conference are symptomatic of an increasing dissatisfaction with the continued co-existence of opposing methodologies.

⁶⁰ Guberina's position on the nature of language and the most efficient method of language acquisition is clear: because language is an “acoustico-visual whole”, the spoken language is the cornerstone of the SGAV method. Since the human body (including the brain) responds to vibrations and sound frequencies, a language method that focuses on intonation and rhythm will optimise language-learning. For Guberina, intonation is the framework around grammatical structures, and so dialogues are used to link context and

analytical skill) only thereafter, once the correct oral pronunciation of sounds had been sufficiently well assimilated as to withstand contact with the written code representing those sounds⁶¹. In a radical departure from the Grammar-Translation Method, Guberina states:

Pronunciation, with its fundamental elements (intonation and rhythm), is the most important factor for complete understanding of meaning. Intonation conveys the unit of the sentence and is involved in every single language structure ... It is clear that pronunciation is the crucial element when teaching a foreign language.

(1965: 53)

In fact, one could assert that with SGAV, the insistence on correct reproduction of sounds amounted to an informal way of assessing learner progress. Guberina's contention that language is a means of expression and of oral communication, and that written language is merely a derivative of the oral form, goes a long way to explaining the communicative methods centred on everyday spoken French which would emerge later. Guberina's insistence on the acoustic and visual elements of language, the verbal and tonal theory that one sees in the quotation above, in short the theoretical priority given to auditory perception, explains the paramount position given by SGAV to phonetics. With later methods the emphasis placed on phonetics would be balanced with other factors. However, at this stage it is perfectly natural, after centuries of language-learning taking place mainly through instruction in normative grammar that the pendulum should swing strongly in the other direction and that pronunciation should be privileged above all else. Furthermore, the logic of the concept that learners of a language should be able to make themselves readily understood by native speakers of that language seems self-evident to us today, but was by no means so in the early 1960s. Another valuable element to emerge from SGAV, which has also entered the realm of language apprenticeship, is the emotional dimension. By this I mean not only the acknowledgement that learners need to be able to speak about feelings and emotions but also to comprehend and use correctly non-verbal communication (as revealed through gestures and body language⁶²). In addition, SGAV has the distinction of considering

expression, with images (fixed frame) as the link between the situational context and its mode of expression (Guberina, 1965: 10-11).

⁶¹ See pages VII and XXV of the Preface to *VIF*.

⁶² See page IX of the Preface to *VIF*. For an assessment of the (indirect) influence of European Structuralism as inspired by Saussure, on SGAV, see Besse 1985 (42) and Cortés 1981. Germain's

culture to be an integral part of language. In the *VIF* dialogues, there are explicit and implicit references to cultural aspects, which are part of native speakers' everyday lives, (and are thus not restricted solely to literary references as was the case with the Grammar-Translation Method). Indeed, a general impression to emerge from Renard's 1976 publication on SGAV methodology is that to speak and understand a second/foreign language is an ideal means of gaining access to its culture (including its literature). The SGAV method is also of relevance for this study because it contains other elements that have been inherited by later language methods, namely the need for the learner to make a constant effort to comprehend, memorise and participate actively, the appropriateness of presenting language to the learner within a situational context⁶³, the exposure of the learner to voices other than that of the teacher through recordings of native speakers, and the extensive use of dialogue⁶⁴ which, at the production stage, takes a theatrical form (cf. the use later and current methods make of role play for language acquisition). I would also contend that SGAV has had an influence on the way in which the teacher's role has evolved, specifically in two areas. Firstly, with SGAV for the first time the teacher takes on the role of animator (albeit only at the final production stage and this after three previous teaching phases during which he has been directing, explaining and correcting the language-learning). Secondly, because of the extensive use that this method makes of recordings synchronised with still framed images⁶⁵, he needs to be technically trained and competent. Furthermore, the content itself is selected with scrupulous care: known as *Français fondamental*, or *FF*, it comprises 3,000 words, selected from the study carried out in the early 1950s by Gougenheim on the most frequently used words in spoken French⁶⁶. Importantly, oral competence is viewed as

statement (1993: 154-155) that the Saussurian structuro-global approach concentrates on language, (conceiving it as being the faculty of communicating in society), whereas SGAV concentrates on words and the individual's faculty of using language, is most apposite in highlighting just how indirect the influence of European Structuralism on SGAV really is.

⁶³ Stern rightly comments on the merit of SGAV in placing language usage within a social context (1983: 468).

⁶⁴ It is noteworthy that each dialogue or sketch, (used incidentally to introduce new material), is based on a subject taken from everyday life.

⁶⁵ There is, of course, somewhat of a contradiction in that, in their determination to maintain the students' oral expression uncontaminated by the written code, the compilers of *VIF* should relegate written French to a very minor role and yet use a written code (for instance, exclamation and question marks, speech bubbles, and arrows) next to the still frame images. Germain analyses this anomaly fully (1976) and indicates that the successor to *VIF*, *De vive voix* (Moget, 1972), did away with all coded signs.

⁶⁶ The choice of words is made according to frequency alone; this explains the inclusion in the first 1,500 words of the verbs "to be" and "to have", prepositions, irregular verbs, few adjectives (the first adjective is the sixty-fifth word), the use of intonation and "est-ce que" and not the inversion to render the interrogative form, the *futur proche* and not the *futur simple*, as well as the *passé récent* to report actions in the past. From this it is clear that grammatical structures, or the syntactical framework underpinning

being prosodic and not syllabic. More importantly still, within the context of the evolution of teaching French as a foreign language, is the coherent way in which the pedagogical activities happen: *présentation* (introduction of new material, which is situational as already indicated), *ré-emploi* (re-use), and *fixation* (assimilation). Grammar apprenticeship is inductive; during carefully structured dialogues, learners are confronted with grammatical patterns and find the rule themselves without the teacher making this explicit⁶⁷ (Besse, 1985: 45). Of interest here is that the practice of the grammatical structure within a communicative situation, and not the (re)formulation of it, is the focus of the method. Use of the learners' first language is strongly discouraged, since the latter is perceived as interfering linguistically with second-language acquisition; teachers should rather have recourse to gestures, mimicry, and illustrations to elucidate meaning. Learners themselves must confine themselves to the target language from the very earliest stages of their language apprenticeship. The pedagogical activities for SGAV, which consist of theatre, answering (and sometimes asking) questions on various images, structural exercises, guided conversation, adaptation of a narrative text into dialogue form, and the unguided continuation of a narrative text or dialogue, are very largely teacher-led. However, it is important to note that for the last two of the aforementioned pedagogical activities the students work interactively in small groups. A further significant element with SGAV is the increased subtlety of attitude towards learners' mistakes. Initially, the teacher listens and takes note; during the learner memorisation stage, he will correct pupil error (to ensure correct intonation and rhythm), whereas during the phases of re-use, error correction happens discreetly. Besse's account of the experiences of certain SGAV practitioners is useful when evaluating the strengths and weaknesses of the method: second-language learners were reported to interact successfully with native speakers of the language in a variety of everyday situations but they were unable to understand native speakers either talking amongst themselves or in the media⁶⁸ (1985: 45). It is clear from Germain's analysis of Rivenc's article (1991) on the 5th International SGAV Conference in Toulouse – *Problématique SGAV et approche communicative* – that, whilst the proponents of

the method, are in the main intuitive. Pages XIX and XX of the Preface to *VIF* justify the order in which learners are introduced to various linguistic elements; it is a justification that is based solely on “*les éléments qui lui servent [à l'étudiant] à entrer en communication avec les autres, à se situer par rapport à eux*”.

⁶⁷ The teacher may be explicit over a grammatical rule during the written expression stage.

⁶⁸ Furthermore, a research project carried out during 1977-1978 in eight Scottish schools using the SGAV method for teaching French to beginners provides useful information on the de/merits of the method.

SGAV remain convinced of the general principles behind the method, they nevertheless concur with the communicative methodologists who were to emerge a little later that competence in communication/expression must necessarily pass through linguistic competence and admit that a more flexible and varied approach towards teaching grammatical structures would be advantageous.

Beginning in the late 1970s and evolving fully in the 80s, a strand was added to the Integrated Approach, in the form of Integrated Methods which also integrated educative principles with language acquisition and usage theories. There are various examples of the evolution of these Integrated Methods⁶⁹. In fact, although they are all relatively distinct one from another, since they vary in their respective emphases, there is nevertheless a striking commonality – they are all inclusive as opposed to exclusive or proscriptive. For the purpose of this study, a brief overview of one such example can be found in Stern-LeBlanc's multidimensional curriculum. Certain recommendations made in 1980 by expert pedagogues meeting under the auspices of the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) were the inspiration for Stern's multi-dimensional curriculum, presented in 1983. Two years later, Stern⁷⁰ developed this theoretical concept into a practical framework that would be applicable to the Canadian secondary school context with the aim of teaching French to Anglophone pupils. The fundamental concept underpinning the approach is that non-mother-tongue language teaching must be placed within the broader educative enterprise, with the result that the choice and progression of linguistic elements to be taught are to be thought of in terms of four integrated syllabi: language, culture, communication and general language training⁷¹. For Canale, language communication is characterised as a form of social interaction which, in terms of both the form and the message, is unpredictable and creative; he defines its use as being constrained by discursive and socio-cultural contexts, with limitations being imposed by the speaker's degree of fatigue and ability to remember. Furthermore, language communication implies authenticity and is firmly circumscribed by a specific objective (to persuade or to reassure, for example), and can be considered to be successful if the message is conveyed to the interlocutor (Painchaud, 1990: 2). In real terms, this means that the

⁶⁹ For instance, the communicative and interactive methodologies designed in Britain by Brumfit (1984) or Rivers (1987) respectively, or those fashioned in Canada for thirteen and eleven year olds (see Duplantie et al., 1988 and 1990 and Beaudoin, 1989 respectively).

⁷⁰ When Stern died, LeBlanc took over the project.

⁷¹ Revealed by analysis of LeBlanc's 1989 and 1990 publications.

speaker makes the interlocutor realise his **intention to communicate**. Therefore, with this approach, learning how to communicate goes far beyond the unit of the sentence or mastery of linguistic forms and also incorporates the speaker's intention and the interlocutor's interpretation of the message. It should be noted, then, that the message takes priority over correct linguistic forms, although the latter are obviously not jettisoned, since they, of course, are guarantors of the message. Therefore, in this language syllabus, alongside language units based on syntax, lexis, and morphology, are functional units and the transposition of the latter into speech acts. This, in turn, signifies the inclusion of those discursive and conversational units that make it possible for communication to be organised in a coherent whole (Painchaud, 1990: 37-40). As Duplantie & Tremblay point out, "the idea of including communicative/experiential or non-analytical activities in a language course is hardly revolutionary. [...] What is original in Stern's proposal is that he suggests organising these activities in a syllabus" (1990: 444).

It is the second of the four syllabi, the communicative/experiential syllabus, which dictates such contexts. Tremblay et al. define these as enabling the learner "to develop the ability to exchange messages that are meaningful for him" (1990: 45). By 'meaningful', it is understood that the message is to be expressed in a way that is customary, and that the context is to be linked to the learner's own experience. 'Experience' is defined as "what a person acquires as a result of repeated interactions with his environment" or "the different dimensions of the relationships that an individual has with his environment" (Tremblay et al., 1990: 44, 51). These interactions are the product of the contact between an individual's wishes or desires and his surroundings; through them, the individual gains experience in the form of knowledge, behaviour and attitudes. Since language experience is prioritised by this approach, comprehension skills (be they verbal or written) are trained through documents that have some value for the learner. The production phase centres essentially on the learner's intention to communicate and enables him to produce the intended message appropriately according to the context. When Painchaud writes that "a competent speaker must indeed be able to produce grammatically correct sentences, but he must also be able to use sentences that are appropriate to the situation in which they are enunciated," she is drawing our attention to how the communicative and the experiential syllabi dovetail in real terms (1990: 55).

The third syllabus incorporated into this integrated method is culture, an area which LeBlanc felt had been sorely neglected until then: “Culture is still most often considered as an accessory in the language curriculum, a matter that must be addressed” (LeBlanc, 1990: 28). The team of researchers adopted an anthropological concept of culture, which they understood as signifying the way of life, of thinking, being and behaving of any one community as contrasted with another (LeBlanc, 1990: 29). Their standpoint was pragmatic: much communication is the result of the tacit, or the implicit, which is itself the result of presuppositions, interpersonal attitudes and behaviour. They contended, therefore, that for the language learner to be able to interpret correctly the messages addressed to him, he must have a good knowledge of the second culture. In the context of the Stern/LeBlanc Integrated Method, the immediate presence of a Francophone community in Canada was the obvious source of such cultural information. The learner’s cultural awareness would, in turn, be centred on his personal experiences in which he had had meaningful involvement. The last of the four syllabi was the general language-training syllabus⁷². The aim of this was to encourage the learner to reflect on his own language apprenticeship and of how he learns language. This involves raising his linguistic awareness⁷³, so that he is interested in those elements that the French language shares with other languages, elements which Hébert defines as “productivity, creativity, stability and change, variation, successful communication, and so on” (1990: 5).

But how were these four syllabi to be integrated into a coherent whole, in the form of one multi-dimensional curriculum? Overall, the starting point was to be the experiential approach, focusing more on the message than on linguistic form. This, of course, sits well with a communicative approach and we can see, then, that with this approach, it is overall communication that is given priority. However, and in an attempt

⁷² Here I would draw a parallel with two courses offered by the University of Cape Town that are innovative within the context of South African tertiary education: Word Power, designed to improve the general linguistic skills of students of the Faculty of Humanities and Principles of Language, a pre-requisite preparatory language course for students of Opera at the South African College of Music prior to their studying French, Italian and German. Both courses are taught by Mrs Gail Solomons.

⁷³ Raising learners’ linguistic awareness by means of metalinguistic activities has re-entered the domain of foreign-language teaching fairly recently. I refer here to recent research on multilingualism both in South Africa, because of the eleven national languages, and France, where the presence of numerous immigrant communities means that for many citizens French no longer has mother-tongue status (paper by Jaco Alant, AFFSA, Grahamstown, September 2006; keynote address by Dr Diana Lee-Simon, Université Stendhal Grenoble III at the same conference during which Lee-Simon also mentioned research on multilingualism in South Africa being undertaken under her supervision by a doctoral student (Liese-Marie Watt).

to respect the three other syllabi (over and above the experiential), this focus on overall communication is complemented by an analytical approach towards linguistic phenomena by paying attention to the function of language in any given situation of communication. There is, then, a complementarity, (which on page 192 of Part Three we shall see ordered within the hierarchy of the Seven Pedagogical Steps), that is established between the ‘overall’ and the ‘analytical’. Furthermore, what is of interest in Stern’s multi-pronged approach, and its subsequent application within a specific educational system, is the serious reflection that took place around non-mother-tongue language-learning and the proven feasibility of implementing such a curriculum. Of course, nowadays the trained foreign-language teacher would be uncomfortable teaching disembodied language units bereft of context, but when Stern first theorised a multidimensional curriculum, there was a “real broadening of the scope” of those linguistic units that had been taught traditionally (Painchaud, 1990: 57). Here we are dealing with a theorised awareness and concomitant practical application of the multi-faceted character of all truly successful language acquisition.

Now that I have examined the integrated approach to language teaching and learning with reference to A-O, A-LM, SGAV and Integrated Methods, I turn to the psychological approach, which it is useful to classify in two subdivisions. The first of these involves a psychological approach that focuses on the condition of learning, two examples of which are the “Counseling-Learning Approach”, (or Community Language Learning (CLL)), and the Silent Way. Firstly, Community Language Learning was the result of Curran’s transposition of counselling techniques for learning in general to the specificities of language-learning (1982). Since this approach has been restricted to three empirical experiments, I shall comment only briefly on it, highlighting those aspects that, in my view, have permeated the more widespread trends in foreign-language teaching. Curran’s starting point was his observation that adult learners are fearful of making mistakes and inhibited by their anxiety at seeming foolish in front of others. Therefore, with his “Whole-Person Model for Education” (1972), he sought to apply to the learning situation the same approach that would be applied during a psychological counselling session, in an attempt to dispel learner fear and to foster a feeling of security by following six steps: appropriate use of the mother tongue, self-assertion through learner commitment, dealing with one task at a time, reflecting on language and language-learning, and learner discrimination concerning learned material

and which elements should be retained for future use. With Community Language Learning (CLL), the target language is considered to be the key to opening up social interaction; learners (designated by this approach as 'clients') learn how to learn and become increasingly autonomous (to employ a term widely used by Holec, 1981). The assumption is that learning a foreign language involves more than the intellect but implies also emotional faculties and affects the whole personality. Curran likens the stages of learning a foreign language to the development of the human personality. He identifies five steps: infancy (reliance on the teacher or counsellor), self-assertion (the learner asserts himself by using elements that he has learned), the separate-existence stage (or early adolescence during which the learner begins to interact with others directly in the target language), adolescence (when the learner is independent despite his still rudimentary grasp of the target language) and, finally, autonomy (which implies an understanding and correct use of language registers, grammatical structures and so on). It is clear that this method is centred on both the teacher-counsellor and the learner-client, who must trust each other implicitly. Furthermore, learning is not conceived of as being an individual enterprise but rather the product of collective effort, with learners working in clusters. The teacher-counsellor does not inhibit the learner-client by correcting mistakes, but simply reformulates the utterance correctly. Oral comprehension and production skills are prioritised, with written comprehension and production being limited to material encountered previously orally. Emphasis is placed less on the target language than on the relationships between the learners. Any such cultural content as there is, is limited to the everyday life of speakers of the target language. Initially, the learner states in his mother tongue what he wishes to say in the target language; the teacher or 'Human Computer' (standing behind him so as to be non-threatening) translates this utterance (broken up into manageable lengths) into the target language and repeats it as many times as the learner(s) wish. The utterance is then written on the board or overhead projector and a translation is given, or elicited from the learners. With the Counselling-Learning Approach, then, it is the learners themselves who create the programme.

It is clear, then, that such an approach is very demanding on the teacher-counsellor. Like Germain (1993: 227), I would also query Curran's culturally-questionable notion of security. Learners may feel insecure in having no rigid framework within which to learn; they may feel apprehensive about the novelty of such

methodology, or resist the change that it represents relative to their past experience of more 'traditional' approaches to learning. In fact, the evidence of the 1969 and 1989 experiments points to there being no significant difference in pupil success with the Counselling-Learning Approach than with the SGAV Method. However, it presents certain notions that are of great value to educators and to which I shall return in Part Three, namely the importance placed upon the human aspects of the learning/teaching paradigm.

The second method that can be attached to the psychological approach as applied purely to learning conditions is Gattegno's Silent Way (1972). From 1963 onwards, in the wake of Cuisenaire's use of coloured rods to teach mathematics, Gattegno applied the same technique to second and foreign language teaching. This method calls for the use of coloured batons or rods of differing lengths, and three tables – the sound-color chart, the word chart, and the fidel-chart or sound-letter chart (1987). The aim of the Silent Way is to enable the learner to use language to express his personal thoughts, feelings and perceptions. The learner is to be taught **how to** learn another language, which is considered to develop the personality, particularly with regard to taking responsibility, and developing independence and autonomy. Learning a second or foreign language is, maintains Gattegno, very different from mother-tongue learning, which invalidates then any 'direct' or 'natural' teaching methodology; foreign-language learning is, by definition, artificial and engineered. For Gattegno, efficient language-learning involves the individual becoming involved through a silent awareness of the foreign language, followed by an active attempt to use that language. This is achieved by the teacher remaining as silent as possible and acting, not as role model, but as a sort of guide, indicating possible directions to be taken by the learner. Silence, according to Gattegno, encourages learner autonomy and initiative, fosters inter-group cooperation, and favours self- and inter-group correction. Furthermore, contrary to repetition, silence also fosters concentration, mental alertness and ordering of material, as well as memory retention. The four skills of oral and written comprehension, oral and written production are taught, with all material being first presented orally. Particular emphasis, however, is placed (as with the SGAV) on correct pronunciation and prosody (the supra-segmental elements of language, such as rhythm, intonation, accent, and musicality). The use of charts deflects the learner's attention from the teacher to the language itself. Grammatical structures are also taught, but inductively, since, as with

the Structuralist Approach, language is viewed as a set of sounds that are arbitrarily linked to certain meanings, forming sentences that are governed by grammatical rules. Culture, which is considered to be an integral part of language, is confined to daily activities. Assessment by the teacher is continuous; if the learner manages to use learned material in new contexts, then he is judged to have succeeded. The teacher must remain attentive to learner needs and intervene if required. However, he is a neutral judge, in that he treats correct and faulty learner expression with impartiality. Although the course content consists of linguistic structures, sounds and lexical items, there is no pre-established programme; this is developed according to learner needs. Furthermore, since there are no textbooks, it is the teacher who has the onerous task of selecting which linguistic elements are to be taught, organising them, and constructing a lesson around them. However, Gattegno places much store by vocabulary acquisition, which he categorises in three different classes: ‘semi-luxury’ vocabulary attached to everyday activities such as clothes or travel, ‘specialised’ vocabulary to do with politics or economics, for instance, and ‘functional’ vocabulary. Unusually, the latter does not refer to basic, frequently used words, but to those lexical and grammatical items that the learner could not deduce for himself because they differ from his own mother-tongue usage.⁷⁴

It is all too easy to criticise, along with Richards and Rodgers (1986: 101), the Silent Way because of the absence of all social context and the inauthenticity of teaching language through coloured rods. As Germain argues convincingly, it would be logical to suppose that the Silent Way was a reaction to the excessive use of imitation and repetition advocated by the Audio-Oral Methods, in which educators had placed such hope (1993: 240). In my view, however bizarre the notion of teaching a foreign language through silence may appear at first glance and despite a certain cynicism at the reference to “Common Sense” contained in the title of Gattegno’s 1976 study (*The Common Sense of Teaching Foreign Languages*), his method is not without merit. After all, it calls for the teacher to stop monopolising the ‘talking space’ of the classroom and, concomitantly, for the learner to take responsibility for his apprenticeship, elements to which I shall return in Part Three for my own model of language-learning.

⁷⁴ An Anglophone learner of French, for example, needs to know that in French, the equivalent of “She hobbled downstairs” would be “Elle descendit en clopinant”.

The second subdivision of the twentieth century psychological approach to language-teaching and learning focuses on both the process and the conditions of that learning. Four methods can be cited here, the first of which is the Suggestopaedic Method. Suggestopaedia, (also known as Suggestopedy, or Suggestology) applied to language-learning, was the brainchild of the Bulgarian Lozanov in the mid 1960s⁷⁵. He contended that it is possible for an adult to learn a second language 25 times more rapidly than is customary by eradicating the psychological barriers that impede second-language acquisition through suggestion, thereby facilitating access to the 96% of the human brain that is not used⁷⁶, maintaining that there are two types of suggestion: direct (the assurance by the teacher that the learner has all the attributes required for success) and indirect (operating on the learner's subconscious). For instance, he advocates putting up charts of verb conjugations that can subconsciously 'impregnate' the learner with linguistic information⁷⁷. With Lozanov's method, indirect suggestion and the removal of psychological barriers translate into several practical transformations of the conventional learning environment. In addition to the usual practice of decorating the walls of the learning space with posters and pictures so as create a pleasant atmosphere, lighting is dimmed and the learners sit in armchairs in a semi-circle facing the teacher⁷⁸, while classical (particularly Baroque) music (Mozart, Bach, for instance) is played in the background. The particularity of Lozanov's techniques of suggestion resides in the extension of the use of music to the learning experience itself. The four linguistic skills are targeted but practical knowledge of the language through oral communication is prioritised. To this end, numerous pairs of words in the target language with their corresponding translation in the mother tongue are memorised. The first lesson contains about 200 new words; during the first six lessons (amounting to 66 hours) more than 2000 lexical items are introduced (Racle, 1975: 220 – 221), thereby indicating that Lozanov considers language to be made up of lexical items that are organised according to a system of grammatical rules. Emphasis is placed less on these grammatical forms than on the message to be communicated. After a session of 'de-suggestion' or

⁷⁵ Galisson traces suggestion as a teaching tool back to its medical origins in animal magnetism, hypnotism, and psychotherapy (1983: 15).

⁷⁶ The figure of 4% advanced by Lozanov is purely hypothetical (Bibeau, 1976: 12, 13).

⁷⁷ This is used widely by educators in general, not only language teachers. It was recommended to me by Charlie Lenglez as recently as July 2007 during an in-service training course at the *Centre d'Approches Vivantes des Langues et des Médias* as a useful mechanism to destress learners.

⁷⁸ It is no longer uncommon practice for teachers to ask learners to abandon the conventional seating arrangement of parallel rows of chairs behind desks.

relaxation, each learner is given a copy of a text of about 1200 words (in the target language with a corresponding mother-tongue translation), accompanied by a lexical and grammatical glossary. During the receptive stage, he follows the text while the teacher reads it aloud, in time to the rhythm of the classical music that is being played with the intention of activating both sides of the brain (the left for language and the right for music). The teacher reads the text a second time, but at a normal reading rhythm while learners listen with eyes closed. They are encouraged to read the text aloud for themselves later, at sunset and sunrise the following morning. An active stage during which learners engage in a variety of activities – drama, games, singing, questions and answers, role-plays and simulations – follows this. A second feature of this method is the aim to ‘de-suggest’ patterns and impressions of failure in the learner and to ‘re-suggest’ attitudes that will favour language acquisition. To this end, each learner adopts a new personality, with a new name, parents, childhood, and so on. At a more advanced stage of the programme, learners can create a whole biography for their chosen fictional alter-ego. It is clear, then, that this method seeks to stimulate learner creativity and the use of the imagination (aspects that are, in my view, frequently neglected in adult learning programmes). For this to happen effectively, the teacher must inspire confidence and respect in the learners who are, to a certain extent, cast in the role of children, dependent on the adult in authority. It is the teacher who takes the initiative for interactions with the whole group or with individual learners; only at a more advanced stage of the process will learners initiate any interaction. At the outset, errors are not corrected immediately, so as not to divert learner attention from course content. However, later the teacher will use the correct form to ensure that learners are exposed to correct language usage. In order to avoid possible tension and anxiety, assessment is continuous. Furthermore, it is clear from the use of music, song and acting that Lozanov’s conception of culture extends beyond the way in which native speakers communicate in the target language to the arts in general.

What is the value of Lozanov’s Suggestology? Germain contends that the Suggestopaedic Method disappointed many by not satisfying the expectations that its promoters had created in the minds of educators (1993: 276). As for Galisson, he criticises the method for having “too many shady areas and unanswered questions to satisfy pedagogues completely” (1983: 93). Nevertheless, to my mind, Suggestopaedia is not without interest for present day language teachers of adult learners. Whilst I

would not go as far as asserting, as Lozanov did, that the material environment is *as* important as the pedagogical material employed, it is my belief that environmental considerations play a part in successful language apprenticeship, an aspect that I return to in Part Three of this thesis. I also share Lozanov's viewpoint that communication is not limited to linguistic elements but extends to the paralinguistic or non-verbal, be this in the form of gestures, mimicry, body language in general, or the respect displayed by the teacher for himself and his subject matter simply in his mode of dress. Furthermore, the broad interpretation given to culture in the Suggestopaedic Approach presumably increases the possibility of reaching a maximum number of students; such humanism is holistically sound and potentially enriching. Further, I embrace fully Galisson's statement that no communication is without suggestion and that we would do well to rehabilitate it (1983: 93). Personal experience has led me to conclude that the power of suggestion must not be underestimated in the domain of language teaching; indeed, this is given some consideration in Part Three.

The second method to fall within the second subdivision of the psychological approach is provided by Asher's Total Physical Response Method (TPRM). Known also as the Comprehension Approach because of the importance afforded to comprehension skills, the TPRM, fashioned by Asher in the mid 1960s, limits early language apprenticeship to comprehension. In this, as with the insistence on a stress-free learning environment, there are resemblances with Krashen's Natural Approach, which will follow. For Asher, the ultimate goal is uninhibited oral production that is comprehensible to native speakers; this, he maintains, is attainable through training oral comprehension skills. Asher believes that there is an innate biological language-learning programme, applicable not only to mother-tongue but to all language-learning. Reminiscent of Gouin and of Behaviourist psychology, his position is that comprehension associates language with action and precedes production whereby 'verbs of doing' are integrated into physical activity (1977). Infants understand their mother tongue (mainly through reacting to their parents' commands in a stimulus-reaction mode) long before they can express themselves, and when they start speaking, they do so because they are ready and not because they have been told to. Oral production evolves afterwards naturally and effortlessly. For Asher, oral expression cannot be taught directly; it is developmental and so the learner will speak, just as the infant will walk, when he is ready. With this method, then, oral language holds pride of place, as it

would with mother-tongue acquisition. The belief that first- and second-language acquisition processes are alike is also the reason for favouring the imperative form. It is not the linguistic forms as such which are important, but the meanings of those linguistic forms that can be interpreted via motor reactions. At a later stage in the language-learning process (after about 120 hours), executing commands can extend to role-playing, question-and-answer slide shows, and acting out short scenes; then the classroom resembles a film set, with the teacher in the role of director and the learners playing the parts of actors or, alternatively, with a learner directing the scene. However, it is always the teacher who retains the initiative, interacting with individual learners, small groups or the whole class. In the absence of a textbook, the teacher needs to select pedagogical material carefully, not for reasons of frequent usage or learner needs, but so that learners can act out scenes with the linguistic tools at their disposal. Asher believes that stress can block language acquisition and advocates, therefore, the creation of a pleasurable and relaxing learning environment, authorising the learner to choose when he is ready to speak, and avoiding the correction of linguistic errors (at least during the early stages of learning, as with mother-tongue acquisition). With the same order being retained for the four language skills as with the Audio-Oral Method⁷⁹, three new lexical items are introduced concurrently. These must be mastered before further items are added. Grammar is learned by induction, and physical actions are always considered to be the prime aid to comprehension. Such an approach is, of course, not without its challenges when it comes to dealing with abstract words. It is recommended that these be introduced as late as possible during the language-learning process. Furthermore, for trained language teachers who are accustomed to using authentic documents, the fact that with this method abstract notions can be rendered concrete simply by inscribing the word (honour, justice, for instance) on individual cards is, to say the least, bizarre. Culture is linked to everyday life and formal assessment takes the form of orders (the learner who carries out an order correctly is deemed to have understood the message). How successful is the TPRM? Asher reports on empirical studies that were carried out with the intention of comparing it with a more 'traditional' audio-oral approach (1977: 5-10). The TPRM results were convincingly better. However, it seems likely that some variables went uncontrolled (Richards & Rodgers, 1986: 97). Furthermore, Germain contends that Asher's neuropsychology is simplistic and has never been subjected to

⁷⁹Oral comprehension (of orders and commands); (significantly later) oral expression (by the learner when he feels ready); written comprehension (of material learned first orally), and written expression.

empirical testing.⁸⁰ Germain supports his contention by quoting the statement made by Genesee that the right side of the brain is associated with stereotypical language formulae, whereas the left is engaged for analytical and creative language usage (1993: 268). I am not qualified to judge. What I would argue, however, is that with the TPRM it would be particularly longwinded, cumbersome and burdensome for the teacher to teach more sophisticated concepts and nuanced abstract notions using the TPRM. Furthermore, at what stage and how would written production be introduced? It is surely misguided to treat second- or foreign-language learning as being directly comparable to mother-tongue acquisition; after all, when the learner encounters his second or third language, it is against the backdrop of his mother tongue. Moreover, the reliance placed by this method on giving instructions to teach linguistic elements must, by definition, reduce pertinence and neglect learner needs. That being said, several aspects of the Total Physical Response Method, which Gagnon has identified, are not without interest:

The learner is fully committed. He is requested simply to observe with scrupulous attention and to imitate the action. Consequently, he is not put off by having to pronounce correctly, repeat something or formulate an answer (...). A second advantage is the feeling of success that students have since they can do what they are repeatedly asked to do and can progress rapidly in listening comprehension.

(1988: 16-19)

In addition, Asher's insistence on allowing the learner a silent 'pre-production' phase and the responsibility of deciding when he is ready to speak has an appealing humaneness. Germain believes that the TPRM could be usefully incorporated into a language programme and used alongside other methods⁸¹; in fact, he points out himself that Asher recommended as much (1993: 268). After all, why not envisage the possibility of using actions and movement as language-learning aids and memorisation techniques?

⁸⁰ Asher maintains that the two hemispheres of the brain are responsible for the acquisition of different skills: the left for language, and the right for motor activity. However, he contends that language must first be acquired through the right lobe through physical responses to linguistic stimuli whilst the left lobe learns by observing the action. It is the association of the action with the word that activates the memory.

⁸¹ Providing the TPRM were placed within an appropriately humorous framework ("activités ludiques" to use *FLE* parlance), I would argue the feasibility of its use for certain elementary and intermediate linguistic elements, the past tense, for instance: "Johnny, pick up the book. Johnny, give the book that **you have picked up**, to Jenny."

The third method within the second sub-division of the psychological approach is the Natural Approach. As an experienced language-teacher, Terrell found in Krashen's work the theoretical framework to support his pragmatic findings. The two began a collaborative study that culminated in the 1983 publication *The Natural Approach*. Whereas in language didactics the epithet 'natural' is usually taken to refer to the way in which young children learn their mother tongue, for Krashen and Terrell it signifies how adult learners acquire a second language naturally, as opposed to in a formal learning environment. They saw disadvantage to the Audio-Oral Method in that it was a linguistic model of language-learning which did not take into account the psychological elements of language-learning or acquisition. The first consequence of this is the absence from the Natural Approach of all formal grammar teaching and of mother-tongue usage. Secondly, emphasis is placed more on comprehension than on production. This method is, according to its compilers, ideally suited for developing up to an intermediate level the faculty of oral and written comprehension in beginners. In a carefully-controlled learning environment, learners (whom Krashen and Terrell term 'acquirers') can be presented with material in accordance with their abilities and interests, as opposed to 'incomprehensible input'. The underlying notion is that humans do not acquire language from doing innumerable language production exercises or learning lists of vocabulary but from what they hear and understand. By definition, then, comprehension (be it oral or written) precedes production (Terrell recommends that the latter occur only after the acquisition of 500 words); production will happen 'naturally' without needing to be taught. Language competence implies mastery of vocabulary and grammar, which can be acquired without analytical teaching. Krashen & Terrell consider that any specific course aims are simply a function of the needs and interests of the learners and their language level, and abandon the generally accepted order of oral comprehension, oral production, written comprehension, written production, to concentrate solely on oral comprehension and oral expression. Course aims in the area of communication are situational, and speech acts are not specified, since it is considered that these will be the natural result of clearly-defined situations. Krashen & Terrell maintain that, just as it is important to inform acquirers of what they can expect from the course in terms of methodology and learning strategies, so it is essential to inform them of what they must not expect (being able to speak fluently at the end of the course, for instance). It is the language acquirers who decide on the texts that they will read. Assessment takes the form of testing comprehension skills. Since language is

conceived of as being a means of communication, consisting of lexical and grammatical elements, but principally of meaning and message (Richards & Rodgers, 1986: 130), linguistic acquisition is deemed to have occurred if the message has been understood. Cultural elements are incidental and limited to everyday life. Errors are not corrected, since they are perceived as being a normal part of language acquisition. Indeed, Terrell states that five years of classroom practice, during which he systematically did not correct errors, convinced him that the practice of immediately correcting learner mistakes is not only fruitless but also harmful to language acquisition (Krashen & Terrell, 1983).

Although the Natural Approach borrows certain elements from other methods (ordering using the imperative form is taught through physical actions as with Asher's TPRM, use of gestures, mimicry and yes/no answers originates with the Direct Method, and some group work activities like information-sharing come from Curran's Community Language Learning (CLL) methodology), it also contains a number of novelties, which deserve attention. Firstly, there are the (questionable) grounds on which Krashen makes a distinction⁸² between 'acquisition' and 'learning'; the former is deemed to be subconscious, and the latter conscious. Furthermore, and on a very pragmatic level, limiting apprenticeship (within a formal institutional learning environment) to the subconscious level of the human mind restricts its application. It implies that learners only acquire linguistic knowledge when they are unaware of so doing and that language-learning happens solely when they are consciously engaged in a particular act of learning. I would argue that not only are language acquisition and language-learning able to co-exist quite naturally but that they are interdependent and complementary. Indeed, it seems highly improbable that one could learn a foreign language by listening to others use it without being given the opportunity to practise it oneself.

The second originality of the Natural Method is Krashen's principle of the 'affective filter', which acts as a barrier between the learner's acquisition and the linguistic material presented to him. This filter is made up of motivation-attitude (for instance, the learner's positive attitude towards speakers of the target language), self-confidence and the absence of anxiety (because of good relations with the group and

⁸²This, along with other aspects of Krashen's theoretical framework, is criticised roundly by Bibeau in his 1983 article in the *Bulletin de l'ACLA*.

teacher). The weaker the filter, the greater is the language acquisition, and conversely. Interestingly, Krashen contends that, whereas linguistic aptitude is a significant variable in language-learning, it is rather attitude that predicts successful language acquisition. A logical consequence of Krashen's notion of filter, is the way in which classroom activities unfold and the role that is attributed to the learner-acquirer. The latter has the responsibility of informing the teacher of his needs and interests so as to ensure that pedagogical material corresponds to his expectations, of participating actively in comprehension skill activities, of negotiating with the teacher the time needed to complete certain activities, and of deciding when he is ready to speak for the first time, how and to whom. The responsibility of the teacher is to reduce as much as possible the affective filter (by eliciting voluntary as opposed to forced responses, not correcting errors in communication, and choosing activities based on pupil interest) and to create as rich and varied a linguistic environment as possible so as to reproduce better a natural linguistic environment. He will, therefore, cast his net wide when planning his lessons; he will select a wide diversity of themes of interest to the pupils, and for his pedagogical material he will favour authentic documents that link the classroom with the outside world (recordings of television and radio programmes, print media, posters and so on).

The fourth method and the last example of those methods that focus on the psychology of the process and conditions of language learning, which Germain grouped together under the term Comprehension Approach⁸³, is the result of the practice and research of a group of dynamic Canadian pedagogues. The underlying principle is that oral expression is greatly facilitated by first teaching oral comprehension, all the more so when there is a sufficiently long interval between the two. Indeed, oral production in the second or foreign language is viewed as flowing naturally from oral comprehension, as is the case with mother-tongue learning; as far as possible, then, the learner must only speak when ready to do so and not under duress (Courchène et al., 1992). With this approach not only is the learner called upon to judge his own progress but the teacher must also be alert to all signs indicating learner understanding and progress (gestures, physical actions, oral, written or drawn responses, evidence of problem-solving, and so on). Proponents of the approach, Courchène et al., like many other Canadian pedagogues active in the field of second-language learning (Duplantie & Tremblay, for example), have been able to test their research through implementation of pedagogy and

⁸³ Cf. Germain 1993 for a comprehensive survey and contributions to this methodology.

curriculum reform. They concur that phonological, grammatical and semantic structures must not be taught in isolation but rather in their interrelatedness. For Courchêne (1992), language is perceived as being a means of social interaction and the aim is that the learner should be able to understand oral and written documents in a normal situation of communication, and later to be able to produce such documents by drawing upon models previously seen in class.

The learner's ability to speak another language may well be the external sign that learning has taken place but, as Nord summarises, the best way of conducting that learning process may well be to begin by training meaningful, active listening comprehension skills (1980: 17). Further, Courchêne et al. comment that emphasis is placed on the message and not the linguistic form (1992), which is in line with the kind of pedagogical activities used: problem-solving as opposed to systematic analysis. Ways of evaluating learner comprehension may differ, but the main principles (as indicated above) are shared by all proponents of the method (Duquette, 1989: 26). With the Comprehension Approach, culture is firmly anchored in the everyday life of the speakers of the target language.

It is clear, then, from the way in which language is perceived that the psychology implicitly underpinning the Comprehension Approach is cognitive, yet it also integrates the notion of Conceptual Schemes (anticipation, formulation of hypotheses prior to reading a text) used principally with the Communicative Approach (cf. pages 65-72) for the teaching of reading comprehension. Cognitive psychology⁸⁴ and the notion of Conceptual Schemes mean that learner comprehension problems can be attributed either to a gap in input (because of noise or a broad accent) or to gaps in the learner's internal mechanism (because of his cultural conceptual schemes) (Duquette, 1987: 38). The teacher is encouraged not only to take into account as often as possible learner needs and interests but also their learning strategies. Moreover, one of the teacher's duties is to make learners aware of which strategies work best for them and help them to use those strategies systematically in situations of communication (Courchêne et al., 1992: 79). Furthermore, the teacher must use the target language in the classroom in order to maximise the learners' exposure to that language. Pedagogical material must be centred on situations in which one would normally have to understand

⁸⁴From a neurolinguistic standpoint, the Comprehension Approach centres on activating both hemispheres of the brain, cf 58, footnote 80.

an oral or a written document and must be culturally meaningful and linguistically significant. There are, of course, certain divergences between the various proponents of the Comprehension Approach when it comes to course content, but there is consensus on the importance of respecting learner needs and interests, of choosing documents that are guaranteed to be at least partially comprehensible so as not to discourage learners, and which are coherent with learner experience (Courchène et al., 1992: 81-84). Although rhythm and intonation are considered to be vital for mastery in listening comprehension and oral expression, meaning takes precedence (LeBlanc et al., 1986: 28).

Germain, reporting on the experience of colleagues in Canada who have used the Comprehension Approach, states that its supporters indicate a marked transfer from the skill of oral comprehension to the three other linguistic skills. However, he fails to perceive an apparent anomaly when he adds that the proponents of the approach believe that listening and reading are intellectual processes that operate independently from oral and written expression (1993: 284). After many years of experience, I have found that, although the four linguistic skills may well be intellectually compartmentalised, such compartmentalisation is not hermetically sealed; rather, there is linguistic transfer. Another aspect of the approach to retain my attention is the importance afforded to the area of rhythm and intonation. Knowledge of rhythm and musicality greatly aids the learner in identifying linguistic units and thus accessing meaning. Indeed, an awareness of the articulation and prosody of a language⁸⁵ can improve the performance of a learner whose syntactic and lexical knowledge is weak (Scheiderman et al., 1987). Further, the emphasis placed by this approach on teacher and learner awareness of differing learning strategies is entirely positive and constitutes an element at the forefront of the minds of present-day, trained language teachers.

The last of the three mainstream currents to emerge in twentieth century language didactics are those methods that adopt a Linguistic Approach. As the name indicates, the approach is articulated around the conception of the language and not its apprenticeship. With this third current, the notion of language as a purely linguistic phenomenon was transposed into two principal methods. Firstly, the Situational

⁸⁵ For a detailed explanation of intonational contours taught according to the Comprehension Approach during the late 1980s and 1990s at the University of Ottawa, see Germain, 1993: 288-289.

Method⁸⁶, known as the British Oral Method by the mid 1950s, can be traced back to the applied linguists Palmer and Hornby (themselves fully cognisant of the research of Danish linguist Jespersen and British phonetician Jones, as well as of the Direct Method). Indeed, any study of modern foreign language teaching would be incomplete without reference to Palmer, a true pioneer⁸⁷ in language teaching who based his numerous language textbooks (English for French and Japanese adult learners, French for Anglophone learners, and Esperanto for the French) on his scholarship in Phonetics and his extensive experience as a language teacher⁸⁸. British structural linguists such as Palmer considered language to be essentially an oral phenomenon and their aim was to place an oral approach in a sound theoretical framework, which, unlike the Direct Method, would not rely on intuition but rather on sound principles to govern choice of material and teaching methodology. Although the four language competencies are targeted, oral skills are prioritised, with the written word being viewed simply as a derivative of the spoken word. Therefore, writing is only introduced after mastery of certain basic grammatical and lexical notions. The syntax of the language is viewed as the quintessence of all oral language. This may well seem similar to how American linguists, such as Fries, viewed language but there is one clear distinction – the originality of this system lies in the notion of ‘situationality’. Under the influence of the anthropologist Malinowski and linguists Firth (1957) and Halliday (1978), linguistic structures began to be conceived of as linked to, or associated with, the situations in which they would be used. It was logical, therefore, that with the Situational Method, the cultural element should be restricted to the day-to-day way of life of the speakers of the target language.

Unlike the American behaviourist approach towards language-learning, the British method focused on the process, as opposed to the external conditions of the learning environment. That is why Palmer reduces language-learning to three processes: reception of the knowledge or material to be learned, memorisation by dint of repetition,

⁸⁶ This method is still used to teach second-language English despite the fact that some of the theoretical framework underpinning it was discredited in the second half of the 1980s with the advent of the Communicative Approach.

⁸⁷ Indeed, the titles of Palmer’s numerous textbooks bear witness to his innovative approach, e.g. *Conversation without childishness*, *Grammar without boredom* (1904); *Commercial correspondence in English for Beginners* (1906) and *Elementary French for the Special Use of Adult Pupils and Students* (1907).

⁸⁸ For a succinct evaluation of Palmer’s merits, see Howatt’s Foreword to Smith’s extensive study (Smith, 1999: vii-viii).

and practice until the language unit has been completely assimilated into the learner's personal capacities. In this insistence on the training of linguistic automatisms, one can see clear parallels with the Audio-Oral Method. There are parallels too in that the learning is teacher-centred, with the learner following the teacher's instructions, listening to his presentation of new (teacher-selected) material and answering his questions; little initiative is allowed the learner whose linguistic needs receive scant attention, and then only at the advanced stages of the learning process. During the practical phase, the teacher who prepares revision exercises of material learned and organises formative tests, supervises oral production of language structures and correct pronunciation. Learner error is not condoned and the teacher is at the core of how successful this method is: he receives only guidelines regarding class activities, which can involve the use of books, illustrations, flashcards and posters, (indicating thereby an awareness of the usefulness of visual elements for effective language teaching). Perusal of Hornby's *The Teaching of Structural Words and Sentence Patterns* reveals clearly that with this Situational Method, grammatical structures are taught orally through substitution tables, or pattern drills, which would later form an important part of every audio-oral method. Such pattern drills are ordered meticulously according to a progression graded according to difficulty. Each lesson is ordered solely around the restricted number of lexical items and grammatical structures to be taught. There is no explanation of grammatical structures; apprenticeship in this area is inductive, as the meaning of words or structures must be inferred from the linguistic forms that are used in any given situation. Palmer alone allows occasional recourse to mother tongue and a departure from the target language.

What one can retain from the British Situational Method as useful in foreign-language teaching is the very notion of placing language within a situational context, a practice which, as we have already seen, confers meaning and authenticity upon language apprenticeship. That aside, such an approach is problematic from several points of view. Firstly, in its insistence on structural exercises for learning lexical and grammatical items, it implies erroneously a concept of universality of grammars, a superficiality of approach whereby each language is represented as one choice among many possible universal options. Secondly, the strict demarcation between oral and written language is false, since they are rather two parallel and complementary forms of communication. Furthermore, current knowledge of cognitive psychology would

indicate that language-learning calls upon internal cognitive mechanisms as opposed to the external conditioning and learning through repetition that pedagogues borrowed from behavioural psychology. Lastly, the purely linguistic criteria for choice of subject matter (frequently used lexical items and easy grammatical structures) ignore completely learner needs which, as we shall see in Part Three, should be placed at the core of any successful language programme. Nevertheless, language teachers would do well to retain what Howatt refers to as Palmer's notion of "detailed, theory-based models of syllabus and course design and his principled but practical approach to classroom methodology" (Smith, 1999: viii), as well as an awareness of Palmer's distinction between 'spontaneous' language acquisition and skills learned through 'studial' capacities, or in more contemporary parlance, the difference-complementarity between 'acquisition' and 'learning', which is, by definition, an important concern for language teachers (see page 58).

The second method to emerge in foreign language didactics that conceives of language in purely linguistic terms is the Communicative Approach. That the 1980s should herald the advent of this method could be attributed to three reasons: a vigorous interrogation of the Situational Method in Britain as language philosophers, such as Austin (1962) and Searle (1969), turned their attention to everyday language that they conceived of as a means of communication, the evolution of linguistics in the United States with Chomsky's transformational-generative grammar⁸⁹, and the actions taken by the Council of Europe as the Common Market expanded. As we have seen, the Situational Method fell from grace in the 1970s, mainly because experience in the classroom showed that learners were incapable of transferring, from the learning situation to a wider context, structures that they appeared to have mastered. Despite certain voices being raised in defence of structural exercises – in a frequently-cited sentence, Brooks (1960: 146) wrote that "[p]attern practice was never meant to be communication[; i]t is to communication what playing scales and arpeggios is to music", the British Situational and American Audio-Oral Approaches along with Structural Linguistics ceded their place to what became known from the mid 1970s onwards as the Communicative Approach⁹⁰. Given the importance that the latter has

⁸⁹ E.g. Chomsky's 1957 *Syntactic Structures* and his *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax* of 1965.

⁹⁰ It should be noted that the Communicative Approach was being used before the term itself was coined. Further, scholars agree that with the Communicative Approach, in particular, it is very difficult to establish precise limits (both for content and chronology).

had, and still has, on foreign-language teaching, it is appropriate to examine in turn the three influences that account jointly for the emergence and popularity of the Communicative Approach.

Firstly, Austin and Searle, whose work affected thinking around language⁹¹, drew a distinction between normal uses of language and uses that they deemed to be parasitic on them. This distinction is first made by Austin in *How to Do Things with Words* (1962), in which he saw language as a social activity rather than merely a matter of stating something truly or falsely. When such acts fail, Austin termed them ‘unhappy’ or ‘infelicitous’. By ‘parasitic’, he meant that such acts could be parasitised, for example by using them in jokes, novels, poetry, or on the stage. However, utterances may not always be determined as being ‘normal’ or ‘parasitic’ without also considering the speaker’s intentions; in other words, it is important to pay attention not only to the social situation in which language is used but also to the user’s intentions. In his *Speech Acts* (1969)⁹², Searle developed the analysis first presented by Austin⁹³, of these illocutionary acts⁹⁴, or acts that are performed *in* saying something. He posits that a statement, a question, a command, and an expression of desire may be identical in their propositional content and yet differ in their illocutionary force⁹⁵. Furthermore, he argued that for an illocutionary act to be successful, certain conditions must prevail; these he called preparatory conditions. For instance, Searle maintains that for a greeting to be successful, the interlocutors must just have met or been introduced to each other. He also incorporates the ‘sincerity condition’; sincerity is not required for the illocutionary act to occur, but should it be insincere, then the act is considered to be ‘defective’. According to Searle, each illocutionary act can also be defined in terms of what the speaker is attempting to do when uttering it; this aspect of the speaker’s intent

⁹¹ This was not universally accepted. In his well-argued thesis “Deconstruction and Speech Act Theory: A Defence of the Distinction between Normal and Parasitic Speech Acts” Halion recalls the vigorous criticism that Derrida levelled at Austin’s and Searle’s theories of language (<http://www.e-anglais.com/thesis.html>).

⁹² See also Searle, J., *Expression and Meaning* (1979) and *Intentionality* (1983).

⁹³ Searle also drew upon the efforts of another of his Oxford teachers, P.F. Strawson.

⁹⁴ I am grateful to Professor John Atkinson, Emeritus Professor of Classics at the University of Cape Town, for having drawn my attention to the notion of illocutionary acts by directing me to a publication dealing with illocutionary force-indicating devices in Collinge, N.E., “Pragmatics”, *Proceedings of the Cambridge Philological Society* 214, 1988, 1 - .

⁹⁵ For example, this would be the difference between 1. You go to the gym regularly. 2. Do you go to the gym regularly? 3. Go to the gym regularly! 4. If only you went to the gym regularly.

became a main focus in Searle's later work⁹⁶. In addition, he introduces the term 'Background' into his analysis, by which he refers in the main to the context within which an intentional act occurs, namely what is presupposed by that act. For the purposes of this thesis, I would argue that the main import of Austin's and Searle's philosophical interrogation of the nature of language resides in their notion of speech acts (the term in *FLE* would be *actes de parole*), language as a social interaction, the situation of communication, the background (or context) behind the speech act, the user's intention and sincerity, or what we might designate in *FLE* terms, as the authenticity of the communication.

The second possible influence responsible for engendering the Communicative Approach is the exponential growth of, and interest in, linguistics that was generated by Chomsky's transformational-generative grammar. Chomsky's linguistic theory associated particularly with his 1957 work *Syntactic Structures* starts from the rationalist assumption that a 'deep structure' underlies a language, and that a similar 'deep structure' underlies all languages. Transformational grammar seeks then to identify rules (transformations) that govern relations between parts of a sentence and act upon the phrase-structure to form more complex sentences. According to this theory, then, all languages have the same 'deep structure', but differ from each other in surface structure because of the application of different rules for pronunciation, word order, and so on. Thus, through the correct manipulation of the rules, transformations can take place, thereby generating new sentences. Chomsky must also be credited with having made the distinction in *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax* (1965) between two phenomena that language pedagogues need to keep at the forefront of their minds: language **competence** (the subconscious control of a language system) and language **performance** (the speaker's actual use of that language system). Germain argues that **this** distinction explains why Chomsky's influence on second-language didactics must be considered as being felt only "indirectly" (1993: 201). In fact, all language practitioners are aware of the difference that exists between a speaker's innate capability to produce new utterances (for Chomsky 'competence') and that speaker's actual 'performance'. I would assert that Chomsky's purist approach to language as an intellectual phenomenon, almost disembodied from any real situational context, (a

⁹⁶ Given the scope of this thesis, I have not judged it pertinent to include information on Searle's extension of intentional utterances to 'their direction of fit': 'mind-to-world' or, conversely, 'world-to-mind'.

criticism to which Germain (*ibid*) alludes when referring to Hymes's criticism of Chomsky), is **ample** justification for calling the latter's influence 'indirect'. Furthermore, Chomsky's theory of transformational-generative grammar does not really mark a break with the structuralist theory that informed the Situational/Oral Approach of the 1970s, and for that reason alone, it would not be logical to attribute to Chomsky the change from the Situational/Oral Approach to the Communicative Approach. Put differently, it could be argued that, thanks to Chomsky, a similar approach to grammar persisted in the 1980s as had been the case in the 1970s. For true influence, it is to the philosophers Austin and Searle that one should turn with their concept of the communicative purpose of language, or language function.

The third influence responsible for the emergence of the Communicative Approach lies in the specific language needs identified by the Council of Europe for the growing European Common Market. In 1972 the Council of Europe requested a body of experts to set up language courses for adult learners. This gave rise in 1975 to the *Threshold Level English* and in 1976 to the *Niveau-seuil* (for the teaching as foreign languages of English and French respectively within what has now become the European Union). Both documents specify the key-concept of 'speech acts' or 'language functions' and list possible utterances for these speech acts. Furthermore, both refer to the importance of taking learner needs into account when establishing course programmes and deciding upon course content⁹⁷. It is also obvious when perusing Wilkins's *Notional Syllabuses* (1976) that awareness of these hitherto relatively ignored concepts of functional language and learner needs was growing.

Having identified, then, the possible influences on, and reasons behind, the genesis of the Communicative Approach, I come now to what the approach involves. The Communicative Approach aims to train learners in the four language skills, to greater or lesser degrees, depending on learner needs, interests and aspirations. As the name suggests, language is conceived of as a means to communicate, or a tool for social interaction, with the learner as communicator and partner in negotiating the transfer of the message to be communicated. This notion of partnership signifies logically that the learner is responsible for his language-learning and that the teacher is less authoritarian and his approach less directive than with the methods that had gone before. Hence the

⁹⁷ As if reacting to the over-reliance on the specific needs of the European Common Market, Germain warns against deciding on course content and methodology solely in line with institutional criteria, maintaining that such an approach jeopardises learner needs and aspirations (1979: 14-15).

process can be seen as being more important than the product. Grammatical competency is viewed as being just one element of a much broader competency – communicative competency, which Canale and Swain identify as being composed of three distinct elements: grammatical competency (made up of specifically linguistic aspects, such as lexis, morphology, syntax, semantic structure of the sentence, and phonology), sociolinguistic competency (itself composed of socio-cultural rules and rules governing discourse), and strategic competency (1980: 27-30). It is apparent, then, that the learner who knows the grammatical rules of a language cannot necessarily communicate in that language. Grammatical, lexical, and phonological knowledge is necessary to communicate in the foreign language but that knowledge alone is insufficient for successful communication. In simple terms, successful communication is also dependent on using appropriate context-specific, interlocutor- and intention-variable discourse. The teacher's aim is, then, to enable the learner to communicate effectively by ensuring that the latter can adapt linguistic forms to both the intention driving the communication and the situation of that communication. Meaning (whether oral or written) is not just a message that the speaker-writer wants to transmit but is the result of a social interaction, negotiated⁹⁸ between the former and the interlocutor-reader⁹⁹. With this approach, culture is viewed as being everyday life, with the result that non-verbal elements are incorporated into the concept of communication. Indeed, the assertion of Galisson that the communicative approach led to the word 'civilisation' being replaced by 'culture' and to the rethinking that the latter should be incorporated into the educational enterprise, is well-known:

L'approche communicative a aidé les acteurs du domaine à mieux faire la différence entre culture livresque ou savante (avec la pensée) et culture comportementale ou quotidienne (avec le corps), et à privilégier la seconde, quand l'objectif est d'accéder à la communication ordinaire, dans les situations de vie courante. D'où la dichotomisation du concept de "culture" (trop général pour être opératoire dans le domaine) en

⁹⁸ In my view, this concept of negotiated meaning could well indicate the influence on the Communicative Approach of Searle's notion of 'Collective Intentionality' (see Searle, J., 1995, *The Construction of Social Reality*); that is, to use Searle's own example, a five dollar note is really a five dollar note for reasons that have nothing to do with its physical properties but because society has collectively agreed that it is a five dollar note. As Searle wrote in *The Construction of Social Reality* (1995), all of social reality has a logical structure and that structure is linguistically constituted.

⁹⁹ In an institutional context, I believe this is best transposed into inter-peer interaction. Indeed, group work is a key aspect of the model proposed in Part Three.

“culturel” (la culture quotidienne) et “cultivé” (la culture savante), et la priorisation, avec les débutants au moins, du “culturel” sur le “cultivé”.

(Galisson, 1992: 2)

This was the start of an educational imperative which has subsequently become an increasingly important aspect of any language-teaching enterprise: the need for the learner to discover the socio-cultural reality behind every linguistic enunciation and for the teacher to place all linguistic exchange within a context allowing for identification of the different elements of the situation of communication (the social relationship between the interlocutors, the emotional relationship between them, and the purpose behind the communication).

The evolution in psychological reflection (from a behaviourist to a cognitive stance) impacted on how the learner and his apprenticeship were to be viewed under the Communicative Approach¹⁰⁰. Recognition that the human mind could discern cognitively the rules governing speech meant that the learner was no longer perceived as a passive being, subjected by the teacher to external stimuli in an attempt to inculcate the correct linguistic reflexes, along Pavlovian lines. Henceforth, he is an active participant in his language apprenticeship in an internal process that will depend largely on him. The success of his language-learning is less the result of the teacher's input or the pedagogical material used, than the joint effect of the kind of information presented to him and the way in which he, the learner, deals with that information. The learner is actively involved in both input and output and his language apprenticeship is conceived of as negotiation of meaning, whereby the role of the teacher (less dictatorial-instructivist and more diversified) is that of role model, mentor, facilitator, organiser, adviser and co-communicator. This implies that learners often interact with each other, in tandem, trios, and small groups. Since emphasis is placed on the message, and not the linguistic form, the teacher encourages learners to take risks in the new language. To foster risk-taking, the teacher will favour the target language in the classroom and provide a linguistically rich and varied learning environment, through which he guides

¹⁰⁰ Germain (1993: 205) alerts us to the fact that cognitive psychology gave rise to specific methodologies for second-language learning, substantiating this by reference to Bialystok (1978), McLaughlin, Rossman & McLeod's learning theory (1983), and Nagle & Sanders's 1986 model for oral comprehension. He also contends that, whereas the Situational/Oral Approach was firmly anchored in the tenets of Behavioural Psychology, no such direct link exists between the Communicative Approach and Cognitive Psychology, and that the relationship linking the two was only established *a posteriori*. I would argue that, although the Communicative Approach has obviously not arisen because of cognitive psychology alone, in its conception of the learner as a thinking being involved actively and creatively in the learning process, it is nevertheless significantly indebted to developments in cognitive science.

pupils, suggesting stimulating communicative situations and encouraging them to hypothesise about what they encounter¹⁰¹. In addition to the learner being exposed to a richly varied learning environment, his apprenticeship must be meaningful for him, in accordance with his age, interests, and concerns. Furthermore, each communicative activity involves an intention to communicate a specific message achieved through a variety of means (games, role-play, simulation, problem-solving, for instance). A meaningful communicative activity transmits information, involves choice in both what is said and how it is said, and implies ‘feedback’ in terms of the interlocutor’s reaction, thereby enabling the speaker to determine whether the message has been transmitted correctly (Morrow, 1981). This surely accounts for the characteristic use in the Communicative Approach of ‘authentic documents’ selected in accordance with learners’ interests and linguistic levels – be these train timetables, restaurant menus, or the like – a notion to which I shall return in Part Three. Content is as linguistically varied as possible, so that the learner is presented with a variety of ways of expressing the same message, and learns to detect in discourse both cohesion and coherence. Although easier linguistic forms are selected at the start of language-learning, the choice of such forms appears to be intuitive, and accompanied by a lack of unanimity concerning the specificities of the approach¹⁰². Despite disparities, teacher guides suggest in the main the following pedagogical steps: presentation, exercises, communication, assessment and an optional, movable phase of consolidation (which can take place when deemed necessary during the language-learning process). Presentation consists in introducing the learners to new expressions and vocabulary and mother-tongue usage, whilst not encouraged, is not banned as with the Direct Method. The exercise phase involves manipulating the linguistic elements in context and with a specific aim, repeating the latter in as many different ways possible, using the new linguistic elements under the teacher’s guidance and to varying degrees so that finally the learner can take responsibility of his own use of the new material. Given the thinking behind this approach, the communicative phase of the pedagogical process is, understandably, the most important. It is considered that each communicative activity

¹⁰¹ Hypothesis is an important facet of current *FLE*, namely for the Sensitisation /Anticipation stage of the didactic sequence (see Part Three).

¹⁰² Indeed, Desmarais and Duplantie identify three differing approaches towards the teaching of grammar in the Communicative Approach: rejection of an analytical approach, in other words formal grammar teaching; middle-of-the-road recommendation of both analytical and non-analytical teaching; and the ‘watered-down’ version of the approach, with grammar teaching taking precedence over communicative activities (in Boucher, Duplantie & LeBlanc, 1986, “Approche communicative et grammaire”).

must involve unpredictability of response, choice in what is said, and a real need to know; in other words, all communicative activities must reflect everyday language. Activities are learner-centred and non-directive and create communicative situations in which language can be used in differing contexts, so that the pupil can integrate the unknown into the known and express himself freely, knowing that the message is more important than the linguistic form that transmits it. It is logical that the stance on linguistic error taken by proponents of the Communicative Approach is that error is part of the natural process of language-learning. Essentially, two types of error are identified: errors of content, which hinder communication, and errors in structure¹⁰³, which, although they may not impede communication, must nevertheless be corrected during the (optional) consolidation phase. In this light, it is expected that, during his language apprenticeship, the learner will construct a kind of linguistic 'half-way house', a language somewhere between his knowledge of language at the start of his apprenticeship and the target language. His mistakes indicate that he is testing his hypotheses about the latter and the teacher will, thus, be tolerant of learner error.

Germain advances three main criticisms of the Communicative Approach when he states that the identification of what could constitute an authentic document can prove problematic for non-mother-tongue teachers who may, in addition, find it difficult to source such documents if teaching far from the country in which the target language is spoken. He further questions the validity and feasibility of a purely communicative approach for complete beginners. Finally, referring to his 1991 analysis of criticisms levelled at the Communicative Approach (1991: 75-90), he points to the lack of consensus surrounding the more 'formal' aspects of language teaching - phonetics, vocabulary, grammar, and so on (1993: 212). In hindsight and with the recent startling advances in technology, it is easy to counter the second part of the first of these criticisms. As for the first part, as Germain himself was tempted to conclude, authenticity is not the exclusive domain of documents but can reside in an authentic use of language within the learning environment. As for his second remark, experience leads me to believe that there is logically no reason why a nurturing, learner-centred approach (such as the Communicative Approach) should be any less valid at an elementary than an advanced level. His last comment holds as true now as it did almost

¹⁰³ Such an error would be, for instance, the incorrect use of the verb "être" by an Anglophone pupil to state his age: "Je suis dix-huit ans", instead of "J'ai dix-huit ans". This error needs to be corrected to prevent serious errors with the verb "être" at a later stage in his apprenticeship.

fifteen years ago, which can be perceived in a positive light since it implies a continuum of reflection on, and debate around, language teaching and the skills required to become a language teacher.

With this overview of foreign-language teaching over the ages to the late 1980s, the scene has been set for the following decades. Post-1980s developments in learning theories have been retained for discussion in Part Two as the backdrop to current practice. The curtain is about to fall on the twentieth century.

University of Cape Town

Part Two

Is now ...

Ce qui croit commencer ne fait que poursuivre.

Christian Bobin

University of Cape Town

Theory meets Practice

The Theory and Practice of Teaching French as a Foreign Language at the turn of the century

Clearly, any attempt to identify the genesis and trace systematically and with coherence the evolution of an area of human activity risks presenting an oversimplified version of events, whereby it appears that developments over time have occurred in neat, chronological order. Perhaps nowhere is this more true than for the teaching of foreign languages. Each of the methods presented thus far was not superseded by a subsequent one as soon as it appeared but, rather, it continued living, the new method superimposing on the previous one(s). Nevertheless, it is accurate to say that new methods - that half-way house between an approach and its techniques (see Hubbard et al., 1983: 31) – are the result of disenchantment with their predecessors, as revealed by the experience of educational practice, and, importantly, progressions in theory and research. In reality, then, any precise line between approaches and methods is absent and in practice an eclectic mix of elements drawn from various methods is frequently implemented. In this way, methods are representations of approaches, of language knowledge for pedagogical purposes and are implemented through techniques; they are part of a unit of theory, research and practical implementation, and are indicative of the prevailing way in which theories are constructed, research carried out, and applied through classroom practice. That being said, the application of theoretical findings alone cannot be held responsible for changes in foreign-language teaching. Methods are also subject to evolving notions of educational philosophy as embodied in societal values and governmental language policy, Alcaraz's "shift of model" (1990: 10-14). In Chapter 1 of Part Two, my aim is to describe the current practice of teaching French at South African institutions of higher learning by reviewing methodologies, course content, use of technology, assessment policies, pass and non-continuation rates at those institutions where French is taught at undergraduate-level. In Chapter 2, I shall survey recent theory on teaching-learning strategies. My objective is to extend the information on teaching-learning models researched in Part One, so as to determine whether, in practice, the teaching of French at South African universities has kept pace with theory and ascertain if there is a need to modify current practice.

Chapter 1 – In Practice ...

French as it is taught at South African universities in the early years of the twenty-first century

Since 1987, I have been involved in tertiary-level teaching of French in South Africa. This has signified regular contact with colleagues from Sections of French from most of the South African universities at the biennial conferences of the Association of French Studies in Southern Africa which, coupled with my current experience as external examiner for French for the University of Rhodes and the National University of Lesotho, as well as previous, recent experience as external examiner for the University of KwaZulu-Natal, has enabled me to have a sense of how colleagues elsewhere teach and organise the discipline. However, these perceptions needed proper verification. Therefore, with the aim of analysing how French is taught at the various institutions of higher learning in South Africa, I confirmed which South African institutions of higher learning offer that language at undergraduate level by accessing university websites. I then distributed electronically the questionnaire in Annexure 19 with an accompanying e-mail requesting information on course objectives and handouts either to the Head of the French Section (when identified on the website or known to me) or to the Head of Department (or School) in which French is housed and as designated by the website, of the following twelve universities at which French is taught¹: University of Free State, University of KwaZulu-Natal (Durban and Pietermaritzburg campuses), University of Johannesburg, University of Limpopo, Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University, North-West University, University of Pretoria, Rhodes University, University of Stellenbosch, Tshwane University of Technology, University of the Western Cape, and the University of Zululand. Three universities returned completed questionnaires: the Universities of Johannesburg, KwaZulu-Natal (Pietermaritzburg campus), and Rhodes. Additional information on course objectives and handouts was received from those same universities, as well as from the Universities of KwaZulu-Natal (Durban campus), Stellenbosch and the Western Cape, although the latter two did not complete the questionnaire. Therefore, information pertaining to those

¹ I have not included the Durban University of Technology in this review because of the particularity of the discipline at that institution. It is an elective (an alternative to Afrikaans) at first- and second-year levels for the national Diploma in Language Practice and exists as an “optional” subject “based on enrolment” at third-year level for the Bachelor’s Degree in Technology: Language Practice. Course outcomes are clearly described on the university’s website.

institutions which neither completed the questionnaire nor supplied additional details, was limited to that available on their websites. These websites do not convey information on assessment methods or student throughput and rarely mention the existence of a language requirement or of language-learning resources for students of French. Clearly then, my comments on these topics will necessarily be limited in scope and, unfortunately, a truly comprehensive, comparative study becomes impossible. I intend now to deal with the existence of a language requirement and of resources, after which I shall analyse assessment methods for various South African universities, as these aspects can impact on the teaching model. I then propose to review course descriptions for those universities for which information is limited to the website before turning my attention to those for which I could gather more data, (this in alphabetical order, ending, however, with my home institution, the University of Cape Town).

Of the universities canvassed, only two state that they have a language requirement: the University of KwaZulu-Natal (where “[c]andidates registered for the general studies BA must complete 16 credits (i.e. one semester) in a language other than their mother tongue”) and Rhodes University, at which students of Journalism must complete a full year’s study of a foreign language (this appears to have replaced the former language requirement for students of Political Science and International Relations, which fell away five years ago). Although the University of Stellenbosch did not return a completed questionnaire, a language requirement similar to that at the University of KwaZulu-Natal exists for students in the Faculty of Humanities and for students of Politics studying International Relations. The University of Cape Town has no overall language requirement for students registered with the Faculty of Humanities². The language requirement as stipulated by the University of Johannesburg states that “students must have sufficient mastery of English” for all disciplines offered; the conclusion can, then, be drawn that students registered for French at that institution have elected to study the language and that they are not enrolled for French because they are required to study a non-South African language. I have been unable to discover what policy regarding language requirements is enforced by the other eight universities. However, from this

² However, at postgraduate-level individual disciplines can prescribe some language study as a pre/co-requisite e.g. one semester of Xhosa for Honours students of Psychology. Furthermore, the Law Faculty requires its students to complete a year’s study of a language of their choice.

three:two split, it may be assumed that there is no shared language policy in operation across South African institutions of higher learning and that these institutions exercise a marked degree of autonomy in decisions governing subject clusters and core content of the degrees that they offer³.

I turn my attention now to the technological resources enjoyed by the Sections of French at the various South African universities. On both the KwaZulu-Natal (Durban and Pietermaritzburg) and Rhodes campuses, there is a language laboratory and a resource centre, both of which are used exclusively for self-study; the University of Johannesburg also possesses both, but language laboratory attendance is compulsory and supervised. Furthermore, the university's website, under the title "Undergraduate Course Information", informs students that the "First Level Basic French Language and Culture" module "is a computer aided (*sic*) language course for beginners wishing to acquire basic French language skills." Under the heading "Resources available to students", the website of the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University states that the "French Embassy has donated a satellite dish so that students may watch French television, and students may borrow French magazines and educational CDs." From this, it would appear that these resources are used for learner self-study. Although the University of the North-West (Potchefstroom campus) did not complete the questionnaire, information on that university's website states that "French is offered at the first till third-year levels (...) for five hours per week in the language laboratory, the television room and in the multi-media facilities" and that in "die (*sic*) language laboratory [students] get to grips with French and every week (...) will learn more about expressing [themselves] in French." One can, then, assume that the use of technology is integrated into the teaching-learning strategy for French at that university. Whilst the University of Stellenbosch did not return a completed questionnaire, the detailed course handout which was provided, states that, for the first-year beginners' French course, the intake "is divided into ten smaller groups for the Tutorial lectures that (...) are presented as computer lessons on WebCT (on which [students] can continue working in [their] own time". For the first-year intake of students with a pass in French at the Senior Certificate Matriculation examination, the course handout mentions language tutorials and group oral work; for the second year of study, 10% and 5% of total

³ In this regard, see also Part Three: 150.

marks attributed are for work in the language laboratory and group oral work respectively. Since there is no mention, then, that the language laboratory and group work involve “computer lessons on WebCT” for these courses, it may be safe to assume that the latter are used for the first-year beginners’ course only. At the University of Cape Town, there is a language laboratory which, in 2008, is used both for self-study and supervised sessions. Furthermore, thanks to a healthier staff complement (the direct result of the presence of two technologically-competent trainee teachers provided by an agreement with the French Ministry of Foreign Affairs), VULA – the university-wide learning platform – has been incorporated into more ‘conventional’ teaching strategies by means of interactive on-line exercises, Blogs, and discussion forums, (this extends beyond the beginners’ level to the second and third years of undergraduate study and into postgraduate study). From this sample size (seven of a total of thirteen institutions, with detail for two of these being limited to information on the university website), it is clearly impossible to draw general conclusions on the extent to which on-line resources and new technologies have impacted on the teaching of tertiary French across the country. However, the sample does demonstrate that at some South African universities provision has been made for self-study in French, thereby indicating implicitly the willingness on the part of staff to embrace the notion that the learner is an actor in his own apprenticeship as well as the desire to foster the latter’s linguistic autonomy. It is noteworthy that the universities of Johannesburg and Stellenbosch employ technology (a “computer aided language course” (*sic*) and “computer lessons on WebCT” respectively) for the acquisition of language skills at the beginners’ level of undergraduate study. The conclusion is readily drawn that there is some perceived value in Web-based language exercises⁴. In 2008, then, at (at least) three universities⁵, new technologies are an acknowledged part of the teaching-learning strategy for French. Incomplete though the data may be, it is nevertheless possible to

⁴ It would be informative to undertake future research on whether South African universities perceive the value of Web-based activities to be limited to the first year of the undergraduate programme, and on the extent to which there is an acknowledgement of their possible usefulness for the teaching of French throughout the undergraduate curriculum and at postgraduate level.

⁵ I do not include the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University here since it is unclear from the NMMU website whether the Project referred to later (Part Two: 97 and footnote 20 (*ibid*)) is part of a teaching strategy involving all second- and third-year students, is limited to Media students, or constitutes an optional activity.

conclude that there is no generalised use of technologies for the teaching of French across South African institutions of higher learning.

Let us now consider methods of assessment, which are an important aspect of any teaching strategy, as discussed in Part Three: 6.iii: 229-240. The questionnaire in Annexure 19 requests information from South African institutions of higher learning where French is taught on this topic as well as on the numbers of students passing or failing undergraduate courses in French over the last three years, with the purpose of ascertaining whether there are any commonalities pertaining to assessment methods across South African universities. The information requested was forthcoming from the Universities of KwaZulu-Natal (Durban and Pietermaritzburg campuses), Johannesburg, and Rhodes and is also available for the University of Cape Town. Whereas no completed questionnaire was received from the University of Stellenbosch (thereby rendering it impossible to include that institution in any analysis of pass rates), the detailed course handouts which were supplied were helpful for this study in that they inform students very clearly on modalities of assessment.

Table 1: marks-weighting for undergraduate French at five South African universities

	1st-year beginners	1st-year (Matric. French)	2nd-year	3rd-year
Cape Town	80% continuous assessment (split 33% assignments, 67% class tests) 20% end-of-semester oral		80% continuous assessment (split 50% assignments, 50% class tests) 20% end-of-semester oral	80% continuous assessment (split 50% assignments, 50% class tests) [For French III Business split is 75% assignments, 25% class tests] 20% end-of-semester oral
Johannesburg	50% assignments 40% end-of-semester written examinations 10% oral examination	50% assignments 40% end-of-semester written examinations 10% oral examination	50% assignments 40% end-of-semester written examinations 10% oral examination	50% assignments 40% end-of-semester written examinations 10% oral examination
KZN Durban	50% year work 50% end-of-semester examinations		50% year work 50% end-of-semester examinations	50% year work 50% end-of-semester examinations

Table 1 (continued)

	1st-year beginners	1st-year (Matric. French)	2nd-year	3rd-year
KZN Pmb	50% year work 40% end-of-semester written examinations 10% oral examination		50% year work 30% end-of-semester written examinations 20% oral examination	50% year work 25% end-of-semester written examinations 25% oral examination
Rhodes	20% first-semester work & tests 20% oral & written first semester examinations 60% end-of-year written examinations*	65% end-of-semester written examinations 25% year work 10% oral examination	50% end-of-semester written examinations 30% year work 20% oral examination	50% end-of-semester written examinations 30% year work 20% oral examination
Stellenbosch	40% class tests 10% tutorials 15% practicals 5% oral work 30% for four scheduled tests	35% literature 10% language work (assignments & class tests) 10% guided language work (tutorials on assignments & class tests) 25% communication (oral presentations or written assignments) 15% for four scheduled tests 5% group oral	Semester 1: 30% literature 20% language work (assignments & class tests) 10% language laboratory 20% communication (oral presentations or written assignments) 15% for 4 scheduled tests 5% group oral Semester 2: 40% literature 15% language work (assignments & class tests) 5% language laboratory 20% communication (oral presentations or written assignments) 15% for four scheduled tests 5% individual oral	15% language 45% literature 20% communication 5% oral (communication)

** The beginners' course at Rhodes University is a whole-year course, with 40% of the final mark being awarded for first-semester work and the remaining 60% for the end-of-year examinations..*

The Universities of Cape Town and Stellenbosch have both adopted a policy of continuous assessment, which the latter designates as “Continual Assessment”. From the Table above, it is clear that at the University of Stellenbosch, there is comparatively a complicated system of marks-weighting which varies as the student proceeds through his undergraduate study. Since pass rates are not available for that institution, it is not possible to determine whether such a sliding scale impacts on students’ success.⁶ The other universities for which information was made available have retained end-of-semester written examinations as well as oral examinations; they all apportion a certain percentage of the final mark to assignments completed during the course of the year, with this percentage varying both inter- and intra-institutionally⁷. The clarity with which assessment methods are described in handouts for University of Stellenbosch students would seem to indicate that the different weightings there are not the result of chance but rather that they reveal the importance placed upon particular aspects of the course as the student progresses through his undergraduate career, with the study of literature appearing to be the most important aspect of third-year study. It is also interesting to note that on the Pietermaritzburg campus of the University of KwaZulu-Natal, the weighting given to the oral examination increases as the student progresses through his undergraduate studies, indicating thereby the expectation that, as his contact with the language increases in terms of hours, he will be increasingly proficient orally. Highlighting the marks awarded to the oral examination may, to a certain extent, be misleading; it is quite possible (as is the case at the University of Cape Town), that a portion of the marks that go to make up the year’s work, would be awarded for oral competence.

⁶ The after-hours tests might be perceived as being little different from examinations. However, they do take place during, and not at the end of the semester; furthermore, the student handout stipulates clearly that: “No exams are written and there is therefore no “exam exemption”, no second opportunities and no Dean’s examination.” One may assume, then, that the impossibility of redoing these tests, as well as their timetabling, set them apart from the conventional Stellenbosch examination system. More importantly, the weighting given to these tests (the four tests count for 30% of the final mark with 5% being allotted to the end of semester oral), means that “[o]ther (homework or class tests), tutorials, [and] practicals” outweigh these tests significantly.

⁷ The Head of the Department of French at Rhodes University, Dr Claire Cordell, had not realised that this disparity in weighting existed between the undergraduate years of study prior to completion of the questionnaire and stated that she intended to reflect on the need for standardising the weighting, suspecting that it had arisen because of individual staff members convening different courses with each preferring a particular apportioning of marks (personal communication November 23rd 2007). It is, of course, perfectly conceivable that the disparity in weighting over the years of the undergraduate programmes at other South African universities is also the result of individual staff preferences that have become entrenched over time, as opposed to being the result of reflection on pedagogical imperatives.

Indeed, at the University of Stellenbosch, for example, this would appear to be the case as one reads under ‘Communication’ “**oral presentations** or written assignments”. With hindsight, I realise that it would have been most informative to have included in the questionnaire (cf. Annexure 19) a question on the rationale behind any variation in marks-weighting over undergraduate years, thus enabling analysis of, for example, the KwaZulu-Natal sliding scale. Further, this would have made it possible to gauge accurately to what extent marks-weighting is a true reflection of course objectives.

Since completed questionnaires were received from only three of the twelve universities canvassed (none of which has implemented a system of continuous assessment), comparison of pass rates between those universities which have retained the examination system and those which have adopted continuous assessment to measure learner achievement in French, has not proved possible. Nevertheless, recent pass rates for the Universities of Johannesburg, KwaZulu-Natal and Rhodes have intrinsic interest and are produced in the Table below, as are continuation rates for the same time period.

Table 2

Pass rates in undergraduate French: percentage of students who achieved a pass in undergraduate French at Johannesburg, KwaZulu-Natal (Pietermaritzburg) & Rhodes Universities (2005-2007)

	Johannesburg	KwaZulu-Natal (Pietermaritzburg)	Rhodes
2005			
First-year beginners	71.0	63.3	77.3
First-year (Matric.)	*		98.0
Second-year	94.1	100.0	100.0
Third-year	100.0	100.0	92.9
2006			
First-year beginners	80.8	95.5	89.8
First-year (Matric.)	*		95.6
Second-year	61.5	100.0	88.9
Third-year	100.0	100.0	92.9
2007			
First-year beginners	79.1	81.8	88.5
First-year (Matric.)	*		93.5
Second-year	70.6	83.3	90.0
Third-year	100.0	66.7	100.0

** Information on pass rates for students with a Matriculation pass in French at the University of Johannesburg is not available.*

Table 3
Continuation rates: percentage of first-year enrolment to graduate with French as a major at Johannesburg, KwaZulu-Natal (Pietermaritzburg) & Rhodes Universities (2005-2007)

	Johannesburg	KZN (Pmb)	Rhodes
2005			
Percentage of first-year enrolment in French graduating with French as a major	4.0	40.0	10.1
2006			
Percentage of first-year enrolment in French graduating with French as a major	7.7	18.2	10.3
2007			
Percentage of first-year enrolment in French graduating with French as a major	2.2	18.2	11.6

During the three-year period 2005-2007, the annual average pass rate at the University of Johannesburg was 77% for the first-year beginners' course, 75.4%, for the second-year course, and 100% for the third-year course. One imagines that the high rate can be attributed to students including a number of courses in a general BA degree and retaining as majors only those at which they are confident of succeeding. Indeed, this assumption appears to be borne out by non-continuation rates at the University of Johannesburg over the period considered: in 2005, 5 out of 124 students continued French to third-year level (4%); the following year, 6 of 78 took French as a major (7.7%); and 2 from a total of 91 students (2.2%) pursued French to major status in 2007. At the University of KwaZulu-Natal (Pietermaritzburg), the 100% pass rate for second- and third-years for 2005 and 2006 dropped in 2007 to 83.3% for second-year students and to 66.7% for third-years. The comment made above regarding third-year pass rates at the University of Johannesburg undoubtedly also applies to the perfect pass rates for 2005 and 2006 at University of KwaZulu-Natal. However, since student enrolments in French are lower (30, 22, and 22 for first-year French for the 2005–2007 period, 4, 9, and 6 for the second year, and 12, 4, and 4 for the third year), when a student fails the year, the failure rate appears more

significant, which would explain the appreciably lower pass rate for 2007. The higher percentage of continuing students at that university than at the two others could also be the result of lower student numbers, which can make for a more nurturing learning environment; when enrolments are low, educators can work more closely with students, guiding them more effectively in their language apprenticeship, cultivating their interest and enthusiasm. At Rhodes University, the Department of French Studies offers two first-year courses, one for beginners and the other for students with French at Senior Certificate Matriculation, necessitating six semesters of study for French as a major, and eight for those students who begin their study of French at that university. It would be difficult to imagine that the highly successful pass rates achieved by Rhodes University students of French over the 2005-2007 period could be improved by adopting a system of continuous assessment. Furthermore, numbers of students choosing to continue their study of French to third-year level has remained steady (at slightly more than 10% of total first-year enrolment in French) over the three-year period analysed.⁸ Clearly, such figures tell only part of the story and conclusions to be drawn from pass rates should also involve circumspection. When there is partial assessment that tests one or two objectives⁹, then pass rates will necessarily be a reflection of learner achievement in those two areas alone; in such a case, pass rates will not provide information on learner achievement in other areas¹⁰.

⁸ The figures in Table 3 present the number of students graduating with French as a major, as a percentage of the total first-year enrolment for French of the same year. A truer continuation statistic would be found by tracing back the 2007 graduates to their first-year initial registration. Then, the figure for the University of KwaZulu-Natal (Pietermaritzburg) where students can graduate in 3 years is 6.7%. Figures for pass rates were not available prior to 2005. Nevertheless, if one calculates the number of students graduating with French at the University of Johannesburg and Rhodes University, as a percentage of the first-year intake with Matriculation French (a six-semester major, thereby not taking into account those students who may have initially registered in 2004 for the beginners' course, thus requiring eight semesters to graduate with French as a major), figures are 8.3% and 4.4% respectively. At the University of the Western Cape (where the Faculty of Arts 2007 University Calendar states that evaluation is weighted equally between "assignments, tests (including listening comprehension and speaking) and examinations"), student numbers were made available by personal communication (23.10.2007) for 2007 only. There was an initial intake of 50 at first-year level, whereas 7 students enrolled for French at second- and third-year levels respectively. These figures are reportedly representative of student enrolments over the last three years, meaning, then, that about 14% of the first-year intake in French pursues the discipline to senior level.

⁹ Appropriate course objectives for tertiary-level French in South Africa are considered in Part Three: 140.

¹⁰ Indeed, in my limited experience as external examiner for Rhodes University (since 2007), I have been able to observe that the evaluation at that institution of written comprehension and production, as well as oral production, in French is limited largely to literary commentary. Consequently, it could be argued that the marks that Rhodes University students obtain for French, would be an imperfect

Since none of the Departments of French which completed the questionnaire employs continuous assessment, inter-institutional comparisons of pass rates and continuation rates between those universities which have retained the examination system and those which have adopted continuous assessment to measure learner achievement in French, have not proved possible. Consequently, I have judged it useful to include an internal comparison of pass and continuation rates for French at the University of Cape Town for the last three years of the examination system (2001-2003), the year of the change-over (2004) and the subsequent three years of the continuous assessment model (2005-2007) in an attempt to observe any evidence of a trend: a 'before and after' comparison.

Table 4

**Pass rates in undergraduate French at the University of Cape Town:
percentage of students who achieved a pass during the years 2001-2007**

	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
First-year beginners'	76.7	86.0	87.0	86.3	89.6	90.1	82.0
Second-year	96.6	87.1	89.2	91.3	96.6	94.1	95.2
Third-year (Language & Literature)*	100.0	81.5	92.9	94.1	91.6	95.2	100.0
Third-year (Business French)*	100.0	100.0	95.7	95.0	100.0	97.2	100.0

*At the University of Cape Town, students can choose to major in either French Language & Literature or Business French.

Table 4 above indicates that the poorest pass rate for each year of study (highlighted in red) for the period 2001-2007 was in 75% of cases prior to the introduction of continuous assessment. The most favourable pass rate (highlighted in yellow) for the first-year beginners' course is under the continuous assessment only system, whereas there is no significant difference in the highest pass rates for second- and third-years of study between an examinations-only assessment system

reflection of their ability to communicate and interact socially in that language in everyday situations. My comment on the questionnaire design (83) applies equally to pass rates; unless it is clear which competences are being assessed, pass rates alone are an imperfect measure of attainment of course objectives.

and continuous assessment. Indeed, figures in Table 4 reveal no evidence of what could be termed a trend pointing to improved pass rates with continuous assessment. That being said, the Table does not reveal which competences were being assessed.

But does continuous assessment foster increased continuation rates? Table 5 below indicates the percentages of first-year students who proceeded to graduate in the discipline for the year 2003 (when the end-of-semester written examinations system was in force and the first year for which total figures for continuation rates are available), 2004 (when continuous assessment was first implemented) and the following three years of the continuous assessment model.

Table 5

Continuation rate: percentage of first-year student enrolments in French at the University of Cape Town who proceeded to graduate in the discipline during the years 2002-2007

Year	Percentage of first year enrolments in French who continued and majored in the discipline
2002	-
2003	24.8
2004	38.9
2005	24.8
2006	53.0
2007	29.8

The lowest continuation rates (highlighted in red) are for 2003 (prior to continuous assessment) and 2005. It is possible that students graduating in 2005 with French as a major began their study of French at first-year level in 2003, before the system of continuous assessment had been adopted. However, this is unlikely since the majority of students who pursue French to 3rd-year level at the University of Cape Town have a Matriculation pass in the language and major in it after four semesters (2nd- and 3rd-year French). The high percentages of first-year students who enrolled in 2004 for first-year French and who pursued the language to third-year level in 2006 (53%) as well as of those who continued from second- to third-year level (75.5%), graduating in the discipline in 2006, are perhaps directly linked to the adoption of an assessment procedure which encourages students to time-manage and

monitor better their own academic progress, thereby enhancing their perceptions of probable success¹¹. However, this supposition is countered by the drop to 29.8% in 2007. In fact, the conclusion must be drawn that overall figures indicate no significant difference in continuation rate for first-years proceeding to graduate in the discipline between the examinations-only and continuous assessment models of evaluation. Here it should be noted that the very nature of, and philosophy behind, the general Bachelor of Arts degree means that first-year courses are frequently taken in order to accumulate academic credits while experiencing a new academic discipline¹². In this way, the majority of students choosing to study a language at the University of Cape Town do so as part of filling their general BA ‘basket’ with ‘try-outs’¹³. It cannot be expected, then, that a high percentage of first-year students enrolling for French should continue into second-year level and beyond. Indeed, it is probably more informative to consider numbers of students who, with school-level French¹⁴, are fast-tracked into the second-level course and major in the discipline after four semesters.

Table 6

Continuation rate: percentage of second-year student enrolments in French at the University of Cape Town who proceeded to graduate in the discipline during the years 2002-2007

Year	Percentage of second-year student enrolment in French to graduate in the subject
2002	72.4
2003	52.0
2004	84.0
2005	46.0
2006	75.5
2007	67.0

¹¹ For a more complete appraisal of continuous assessment as a model for evaluation of skills and knowledge, see Part Three: 229-241.

¹² Cf. Part Three: 150.

¹³ This situation could equally well pertain to other South African universities and could also explain non-continuation rates at those institutions. Cf. Tables 3, 11.

¹⁴ See in this regard Part Three: 137.

As indicated in Table 6 above, both the lowest (highlighted in red) and highest continuation rates (highlighted in yellow) from the second-year course to major status for the 2002-2007 period were post-adoption of continuous assessment. As with continuation rates for continuing first-year students (Table 5, page 87), there is no evidence of the assessment model influencing continuation rates for second-year proceeding students. Although no significant differences can be discerned between the two assessment models from this internal comparison, Table 7 below indicates that **overall** numbers of students of French at the University of Cape Town who go on to graduate in the language, are higher than at the three universities for which continuation rates were provided (Johannesburg, KZN Pietermaritzburg, and Rhodes), none of which employs continuous assessment to evaluate students' skills and knowledge levels in the language.

Table 7

Comparison of continuation rates at four South African universities: percentage of first-year student enrolments in French who proceeded to graduate in the discipline during the years 2005-2007

	2005	2006	2007
University of Cape Town	24.8	53.0	29.8
University of Johannesburg	4.0	7.7	2.2
University of KwaZulu-Natal (Pmb)	40.0	18.2	18.2
Rhodes University	10.1	10.3	11.6

In an attempt to probe further the effect of continuous assessment on learner progression and to ascertain whether that model better enables students to manage their own language apprenticeship, non-continuation rates were collated, the intention being to gauge whether, once students were enrolled under the continuous assessment model, they would be more likely to complete the semester of study than under the examinations-only method of evaluation. Table 8 below reflects the mid-semester, non-continuation rates (students who abandoned their study of French mid-term) for all undergraduate years for the two years¹⁵ preceding the 2004 adoption of continuous assessment, the year of its implementation and three subsequent years. The Table indicates total student enrolments for both semesters of the academic year, the numbers of students who abandoned their study of French in the course of the

¹⁵ This information was readily available going back to 2002.

semester¹⁶, expressed as a figure and then as a percentage of the total enrolment for each semester, averaged as a percentage of the total enrolment. In this way, it is possible to compare not only academic years over time but also whether the implementation of continuous assessment in 2004 has affected retention rates across semesters.

Table 8

Mid- semester non-continuation rates at the University of Cape Town: numbers of students enrolled for French who did not complete the full semester of study during the years 2002-2007

		2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
First-year beginners (Sem. 1)	Initial enrolment	109	108	82	133	119	121
	No. of non-continuing students	14	7	7	9	6	18
	As a % of initial enrolment	12.8	6.5	8.5	6.8	5.0	14.9
	Final enrolment	95	101	75	124	113	103
First-year beginners (Sem. 2)	Initial enrolment	68	49	51	81	61	68
	No. of non-continuing students	13	2	5	10	6	9
	As a % of initial enrolment	19.1	4.1	9.8	12.3	9.8	13.2
	Final enrolment	55	47	46	71	55	59
Semesters 1 & 2: average % non-continuing students	As a % of initial enrolment averaged for both semesters	16.0	5.3	9.2	9.6	7.4	14.1
Second-year (Sem. 1)	Total enrolment	50	52	54	54	56	54
	No. of non-continuing students	1	8	2	1	1	3
	As a % of initial enrolment	4.8	15.4	3.7	1.3	1.8	5.6
	Final enrolment	49	44	52	53	55	51
Second-year (Sem. 2)	Initial enrolment	40	32	34	44	48	31
	No. of non-continuing students	3	1	2	3	4	4
	As a % of initial enrolment	7.5	3.1	5.9	6.8	8.3	12.9
	Final enrolment	37	31	32	41	44	27
	As a % of initial enrolment, averaged for both semesters	4.8	9.3	4.8	4.3	5.1	9.2

¹⁶ This can either be because the student chooses to discontinue or because his Duly Performed Certificate (DP) has been refused. At the University of Cape Town, if a student's DP is refused for a particular course of study, as the result of poor attendance or failure to submit assignments, then his academic transcript reflects DPR and no final mark is awarded.

Table 8 (continued)

		2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
Third-year (Language & Literature) (Sem. 1)	Initial enrolment	16	14	19	13	26	21
	No. of non-continuing students	1	1	1	0	3	3
	As a % of initial enrolment	6.3	7.1	5.3	0	11.5	14.3
	Final enrolment	15	13	18	13	23	18
Third-year (Language & Literature) (Sem. 2)	Initial enrolment	13	14	19	13	22	18
	No. of non-continuing students	1	1	2	1	5	1
	As a % of initial enrolment	7.7	7.1	10.5	7.7	22.7	5.6
	Final enrolment	12	13	17	12	17	17
	As a % of initial enrolment, averaged for both semesters	7.0	7.1	7.9	3.9	17.1	9.9
Third-year (Business French) (Sem. 1)	Initial enrolment	3	14	12	13	20	20
	No. of non-continuing students	0	1	0	0	1	1
	As a % of initial enrolment	0	7.1	0	0	5	5
	Final enrolment	3	13	12	13	19	19
Third-year (Business French) (Sem. 2)	Initial enrolment	3	11	8	11	20	20
	No. of non-continuing students	0	0	0	0	3	2
	As a % of initial enrolment	0	0	0	0	15	10
	Final enrolment	3	11	8	11	17	18
	As a % of initial enrolment, averaged for both semesters	0	3.6	0	0	10	7.5

From Table 8, it is not possible to state conclusively whether continuous assessment impacts positively or negatively mid-semester and mid-year continuation rates: results are mixed and indicate no clear trend. For the first-year course, both the most favourable (highlighted in yellow) and the least favourable continuation rates (highlighted in red) occurred prior to the advent of continuous assessment (in 2003 and 2002 respectively). For the second year of study, the least favourable continuation rate was prior to continuous assessment (2003), whereas the most favourable was after the continuous assessment model was adopted (in 2005), whereas that position is partly reversed for third-year Business French, in that the

least favourable rate occurs post-continuous assessment (2006) and the most favourable rate occurs once before (2002), and twice after (2004 and 2005), the implementation of a continuous assessment policy. For the third-year Language & Literature stream, both the most favourable and least favourable rates occur after the adoption of continuous assessment (2005 and 2006 respectively). The conclusion to be drawn is that the method of assessment does not apparently influence the students' decision to drop a course in mid-stream. Indeed, Table 8 reveals that over the last six years there has been relative stability in non-continuation rates and student enrolments at all levels of undergraduate study in French, (other than the third-year Business French course which has seen an increase in student enrolments). This relative stability is further evident when comparing mid-year non-continuation rates. From Table 9 below, it is possible to conclude that the assessment model has little influence on a student's decision to discontinue a course of study upon completion of the first semester, in much the same way as it does not appear to affect his decision to discontinue mid-stream. However, it is important to note that Tables 8 and 9 do not reflect the reasons for initial student enrolments and subsequent non-continuation rates (which may include student perceptions of staff dedication, or of the difficulty, facility or study-time implications of any given course). Furthermore, pass and non-continuation rates of the kind contained in Tables 4, 5, 6, 8, and 9 clearly do not indicate whether the assessment model is appropriate for evaluating the achievement of all, some, or one of the designated course objectives.

Table 9

Mid- year non-continuation rates at the University of Cape Town: numbers of students who passed a first-semester course in French but who chose to discontinue the second semester of study during the years 2002-2007

		2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
First-year beginners (Sem. 1)	Final enrolment end 1 st semester	95	101	75	124	113	103
First-year beginners' (Sem. 2)	Initial enrolment 2 nd semester	68	49	51	81	61	68
Second-year (Sem. 1)	Final enrolment end 1 st semester	49	44	52	53	55	51
Second-year (Sem. 2)	Initial enrolment 2 nd semester	40	32	34	44	48	31
Third-year Language & Literature (Sem. 1)	Final enrolment end 1 st semester	15	13	18	13	23	18
Third-year Language & Literature (Sem. 2)	Initial enrolment 2 nd semester	13	14*	19*	13	22	18
Third-year Business French (Sem. 1)	Final enrolment end 1 st semester	3	13	12	13	19	19
Third-year Business French (Sem. 2)	Initial enrolment 2 nd semester	3	11	8	11	20*	20*

** The apparent anomaly of the initial enrolment for the second-semester course exceeding the final enrolment for the first-semester of the course can be for several reasons: there may be a transferring student; a student may have studied the first-semester course but during the previous year; or the student may be an international student on a semester-abroad programme.*

I turn my attention now to course descriptions and materials, beginning with those institutions of higher education which neither completed a questionnaire nor supplied information from course handouts or faculty handbooks, and for which information is necessarily limited to that available on the website. I will deal with each university individually in alphabetical order. The University of the Free State offers three years of undergraduate French, leading to a major in the discipline. The first-year French course comprises four modules: “Communicative French – an introduction”, “Communicative French – the Huguenots, French missionaries”, “Communicative French”, and “Business French South Africa in French texts”. The second year of study also incorporates two modules entitled “Communicative French”, to which are added a further two modules: “The French Revolution. Business French” and “Business French. French women writers. Romantic drama”. Similarly, the third year of study comprises four modules: “Advanced language study”, “Francophone writers including Africans and Canadians”, “Linguistics for French society and the business world”, and “Decolonisation: history and literature. Translation studies: techniques and texts”. I am acutely conscious of the dangers inherent in commenting on the sparse information to be gleaned from a university website, although this may well be the very information that prospective students access. Nevertheless, and despite the presence in the first and second years of undergraduate study of five modules incorporating in their titles “Communicative French”, the coherence of situating the development of learners’ communicative skills with, for example, the Huguenots and French missionaries, is not readily apparent.

At the University of Limpopo, French is housed within the School of Languages and Communication Studies of the Faculty of Humanities. At first, second and third years of undergraduate study, the module name given on the website is “French”. Content topics are clearly described: “Elementary French and Culture” and “Basic French Language and Culture” for the two semesters of the first year of study, “French grammar, Commercial French” and “French Literature” for both semesters of the second year, and “Basic knowledge and Philosophies and Theories of Translation” for semester one of the third year, followed by “Francophone Literature” for the second-semester, third-year course. For each year of undergraduate study, assessment is “[i]ntegrated and continuous” and the

“[r]ecommended electives” are given as “English [and] German”. Importantly, the “main purpose” of each module is, for the most part, stated clearly. For the two semesters of the first year of study, this is “(...) to introduce learners to the French language” and “to gradually and systematically furnish learners with tools to understand the French Language and Culture”. No aim is given for the first semester of the second-level course but for the second semester, the aim is “to consolidate expertise in French language and culture”. The aims of the two semesters of the third year are described respectively as being “to introduce learners to different theories and practices of translation” and “to introduce learners to Francophone culture through literature”. Further, and equally significantly, the “[p]erformance outcomes” are also specified: “Learners must be able to identify, understand and use elementary grammatical structures of the French Language” (first and second semesters of the first year) and “(...) translate elementary French texts” (first year, second semester only). They should know how to “(...) apply French language *connaissance (sic)* in specific given situations” upon completion of the first semester of the second year, and “(...) increase, improve and consolidate French language *connaissance (sic)* in specific situations” after the second semester. At the end of the first semester of the third year, “Learners must be able to translate simple and fairly basic English/French texts” and upon completion of the second semester of the third year, they “must be able to critically understand and appreciate Francophone literature”. If by “apply French language *connaissance* in specific situations”, we are to understand the ability to communicate orally or in writing using the appropriate morphology, syntax, lexis, phonology and language register, then there is coherence between the course aim and outcomes of the second year of study, for which content topics are given as being “French grammar, Commercial French [and] French Literature”, as there is for the first semester of study of the third year. If by “critically understand and appreciate Francophone literature”, we are to understand intercultural awareness and comprehension of culture as revealed through literary texts, then the course outcomes of the third year of study are entirely consistent with stated aims. However, the outcomes of translating “elementary French texts” at the end of the **first-level** course and “simple and fairly basic English/French texts” upon completion of the first semester of the **third-level** course, would appear to reveal an unawareness of

cognitive progression in the language-learning process¹⁷. Nevertheless, the very act of stating course aims and outcomes and describing assessment methods as being “[i]ntegrated and continuous” is indicative that there is some serious didactic reflection at the University of Limpopo.

French at the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University (NMMU) exists within the School of Language, Media and Culture of the Faculty of Arts. In an introductory paragraph to the courses offered, the university website presents the language as an “international language and one of the official languages for the European Union and the United Nations as well as a first language in more than twenty countries around Africa, (...) truly the language of international trade, diplomacy and business.” Career possibilities are highlighted in this same paragraph, with mention being made of “journalism, Public Relations, (...) Human Resources, (...) [and] business in the international context”. At NMMU, French is “an elective as well as a core language in many of the programmes available at the university.” The “French for Beginners 1” teaches the “four basic communication skills (...): speaking, comprehension, writing and reading. There is also an introduction to literary appreciation and French culture.” “Students who have studied French for Matric or are mother-tongue French speakers may go directly into Intermediate French.” This course is described as “add[ing] onto the skills taught in the first year”; it “teaches more advanced communication skills through the study of text and language for professional purposes. Literary analysis and the French literary tradition are also explored through the study of poetry and novels in French.” The third-year course, designated simply as “French”, upon completion of which the student majors in the language, encompasses “[a]dvanced language, translation and literature studies.” Of interest is the mention on the website that “[a]t the end of **each year**, students may write the international DELF exams.”¹⁸ From this, could one not deduce that throughout the undergraduate programme for French at the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University, the four communication skills are taught? It is true that the university website makes no reference to any additional arrangement (such

¹⁷ My emphasis. Indeed, the inclusion of translation in an elementary course is not defensible, since learners are in the process of **acquiring** language. It is only after language has been acquired at a high level, that learners possess sufficient linguistic sophistication to translate from one language to another. Furthermore, the term “English/French texts” is not altogether clear: I assume that it means translation from English to French and vice versa. It may perhaps indicate that texts to be translated into French are simple, which could then point to cognitive progression.

¹⁸ My emphasis. For an explanation of the DELF examinations, see Part Three: 170, footnote 46.

as inter-institutional mutualisation with the *Alliance française* of Port Elizabeth of teaching personnel and resources¹⁹) which might be designed to complement the university offerings by targeting, for instance, communicative skills. However, French at NMMU is the subject of innovative, interdepartmental collaboration. On the university website, under the heading “Projects”, one reads that since a survey revealed that 77% of students taking French at that university are Media students, an “innovative cooperative project” was devised by the “French discipline and the Department of Journalism, Media and Philosophy”. The NMMU website states as the genesis of the project “the need to restructure the French curriculum” so as to “incorporate a media content”, since “alternative course content was needed to revitalize the French subject (*sic*) at the university.” That appropriate “alternative course content” should have been identified as “media content” is of less import for the scope of this study than the justification that such an alternative was needed: “Notwithstanding the fact that the study of literature is still extremely important in university studies, it was argued that a new approach was needed to teach French as a foreign language. Therefore, a new methodology was devised in order to bring the teaching of French into the 21st century.” We read that this new methodology “needed to incorporate both the analytical skills of literary analysis and a brand-new approach to language teaching that did not rely solely on grammar teaching.” This translates to a “greater synergy between the French and Media curricula”, which “will be accomplished through the interpretation of media projects such as the creation of a blog, an online newspaper, the writing of press releases and interviewing techniques.” The timeframe for the implementation of the project is not specified on the NMMU website; however, a blog is already in existence on the South African Iron Man competition and online articles written by second- and third-year students on “French and Francophone cultures as seen from the students’ perspectives” can be consulted²⁰. Clearly then, at NMMU there has been recent in-

¹⁹ Theoretically, it would be feasible for the *Alliance française* of Port Elizabeth to provide tuition in communicative skills, since the in-service trainee-teacher (*stagiaire*) provided by the French Ministry of Foreign Affairs divides his/her time between the *Alliance* and the French Section at NMMU. In fact, one collaborative venture already exists between the two institutions, an online project (French and Francophone cultures), detailed later on the university website: “The articles that appear on this site have been written by the students for a project that was sponsored by French Embassy (*sic*) in South Africa and that has received the support of the *Alliance française* of Port Elizabeth.”

²⁰ It is unclear from the university website which students are involved in the project. In this regard, see footnote 5, page 79.

depth reflection on the role and status of French; there is patent evidence of a desire to innovate in terms of methodology, content, and interdepartmental collaboration.

At the University of the North-West (Potchefstroom campus), French is offered within the School of Languages from the elementary level for beginners with “no pre-knowledge of French” through to third-year level. The course “focuses on [a] training programme on a communication-oriented, intercultural basis; [d]evelopment of oral and written skills and the acquisition of correct French pronunciation”, “[a] systematic overview of French grammar and syntax and the systematic acquisition of vocabulary”, “[a]n introduction into French literature”, and “[t]he presentation of the geographic, political and socio-historical background of France.” These general aims are presented at beginning of the Web page devoted to French at the University of the North-West and aims are not specified for individual courses, for which “[m]odule outcomes” are, however, clearly stated. “After completing” the first semester of the first-level Business French for Beginners “module the learner should have acquired sufficient knowledge of writing, reading, analysing, socialising with (*sic*) and comprehension of the French language in general and business contexts in particular” and “should be able to express himself/herself in basic business and general contexts; express himself/herself orally while taking into consideration the applicable cultural norms prevalent in the French speaking business world; read important articles regarding his/her field of expertise²¹, write elementary notes, memoranda or letters.” Learner progression is overlooked in that the module outcomes for the second semester (Business French for Beginners (Intermediary)) are identical to those for the first semester, as is the case for the other two-semester courses. Thus, for first and second semesters of the other first-level course, French Elementary 1 and French Elementary 2,²² both sets of module outcomes state that “[a]fter completing the module the learner should be able to comprehend and take part in basic conversational situations; (...) apply basic writing skills; and have a critical understanding of French culture and French everyday society (as it transpires from language, traditions and customs) in the national and European context.”

²¹ From the reference to reading “important articles regarding his/her field of expertise”, one must assume that, although the learner has had no previous exposure to French, s/he already possesses in-depth knowledge of a specialist domain associated with the business world.

²² It is not clear whether both first-level courses, each consisting of two semesters of study (Business French for Beginners, Business French for Beginners (Intermediary) and French Elementary 1 and French Elementary 2) must be taken in parallel or whether students opt for one of the two.

Likewise, the outcomes for French Intermediary 1 and French Intermediary 2 are identical: upon completion of both, the learner “should be able to have a more profound knowledge of the structure of the French language and to express himself/herself in a more sophisticated way; be conversant with the French literary, philosophical and everyday context and terminology with the help of the modern (French) media (like newspapers, periodicals, television) and the analysis of core texts in the history of ideas in modern France; develop analytical skills which can evaluate the relevant media; and have developed good translation skills”. Similarly, the module outcomes for the first and second semesters of the third-year course (French Advanced 1 and French Advanced 2) both indicate that “[a]fter completing the module the learner should be able to be fluent in speaking the language (i.e. be able to formulate statements and thoughts and converse about it) (*sic*)[;] comprehend and analyse complex French texts; be culturally fluent in 20th Century French art, mainly in literature, philosophy, painting and film art.” One may well question the definition of fluency as the ability to formulate statements, verbalise thoughts and engage in conversation around these, just as one might interrogate the feasibility of developing “good translation skills” upon completion of an intermediate-level course, but it is evident from consulting the Web page for French at the University of the North-West that the learner is placed at the heart of the teaching process in that not only he is informed clearly of the skills, knowledge and increased self-confidence that he can expect to acquire in the course of his study of French, but he is also given some general information on the importance of the French language relative to prospective career avenues.

At the University of Pretoria, along with German, French falls within the Department of Modern European Languages. ‘French for Beginners’, for which [n]o previous knowledge of or experience in French [is] required for admission”, is described as an “intensive introductory study of the French language, with the acquiring of reading, writing, speaking and understanding skills”. Furthermore, the university offers a “special course”, a one-semester “intensive introductory study of the French language, with the acquiring of reading, writing, speaking and understanding skills” for “LLM (Human Rights and Democratisation in Africa)-students”, with which students can register for the second semester of the other intensive course. Like Johannesburg, Rhodes and Stellenbosch universities, students

who have passed Matriculation French must register for a separate first-year course, signifying four years of undergraduate French for those students who begin studying the language at university²³. The first-year course for students with school French is named ‘French Cultural-Professional’ and is described as a “[c]omprehensive review of French grammar [and the] development of reading, writing, speaking and understanding skills, analysis and interpretation of texts (*sic*)” for the first semester and for the second, as a “[c]ontinuation” of the above. Six modules are offered for the second year of study – French Cultural-Professional 3 (“Capita selecta of French grammar”), 4 (“Analysis and interpretation of relevant texts from different disciplines”), 5 (“Analysis and interpretation of relevant texts for the development of writing skills”), 6 (“Analysis and interpretation of contemporary literary texts”), History of French Literature, and French Literature in our world. The last two modules (in the first and second semesters respectively are “[p]resented in ENGLISH”. The first of these deals with the “[h]istory of the role of creative imagination in the modern lyric poetry of the Renaissance, classical tragedy and comedy, enlightenment in the 18th century, romantic poetry, 19th century novel, symbolist poetry, [and] contemporary poetry”, while the second consists of the “[s]tudy of a selection of French literary works (in translation) which helped to shape our modern cultural world: from the 16th century until the present”. It is not specified on the university’s website whether all six modules are compulsory for students of French or whether the modules delivered in English are intended for students from other disciplines. Should this not be the case, delivery in English of modules for the study of French would be difficult to justify in the light of most pedagogic theories. The names of the third-year modules continue to associate the French language with culture and careers (French Cultural-Professional 7, 8, 9, and 10) and are described as “Principles of textual grammar of the French language”, “Analysis, interpretation and appropriation of relevant texts from different disciplines”, “History of the French language: study of the historical nature of language”, and “Analysis, interpretation

²³ Whether retaining three full years of undergraduate study for students with school French to graduate in the discipline translates into high teaching loads for academic staff and/or an increased staffing budget is not germane to this study. However, it is a topic for future research, especially since many tertiary-level teachers of language perceive the Matriculation examination as an imperfect measure of skills and knowledge acquisition. Cf. opinion of the University of Stellenbosch in this regard (102) and the need for six tutorships to bolster the regular staff complement of three at Rhodes University for a total enrolment in French of 87 (2005), 93 (2006), and 116 (2007). Personal communication Dr Claire Cordell, November 23rd 2007.

and appropriation of literary texts in cultural-historical perspective” respectively. From this information it would appear that the French Section of the University of Pretoria confines notions of culture to the literary output of French authors and their influence on the modern world, as opposed to authors from the French-speaking world whose medium of expression is the French language. Further, the reason for the insistence on the “professional” aspect of the courses is not readily apparent, unless the mention at second- and third-year levels of “relevant texts from different disciplines” can be interpreted as the analysis of texts other than those of a literary nature. This may well be so; nevertheless, analysis and interpretation of texts, without instruction in the development of specific skills, would not allow these modules to be considered as part of the sub-discipline of ‘French for Special Purposes’²⁴. Furthermore, the importance accorded to the development of written comprehension and production is significant (five of the six second-level modules and all four of the third-year modules are text-based). The ability to speak the language is highlighted only for the two first-year courses, which include the “development of reading, writing, speaking and understanding skills”. It is, of course, impossible to gauge whether that order is random or whether it may perhaps signify the way in which skills acquisition is prioritised. This much is, however, clear: at the University of Pretoria, French does not appear to be taught at all levels of the undergraduate programme using a communicative approach.

By giving careful attention to details on assessment in course handouts for students of French at the University of Stellenbosch (cf. Table 1, pages 80-81), it is possible to gauge the importance given to the various language skills. The same weighting for modules of the elementary-level course for beginners is retained for both semesters of study. “Tutorial lectures (...) are presented as computer lessons on WebCT” and during practicals “work presented in the principal lectures is practised and applied.” During these tutorials and practicals, the emphasis is clearly on oral comprehension and production, since they “cover essential work to prepare students for tests, orals and especially communicative skills.” However, as is pointed out in the class handout, these classes are “more important than what [*sic*] is reflected by their assessment percentage.” It is, of course, futile to speculate on the apparent paradox of under-assessing student acquisition of skills that are deemed important by

²⁴ I would, therefore, question the appropriateness of including “professional” in module names.

academic staff teaching the discipline. The other first-year course (for students with Matriculation-level French) also maintains the same weighting for both semesters of study. Whereas, according to the course handout, the variety of themes presented aligned with preparation of “the oral component of the DELF exam (2001-2005), [d]ue to the diminishing standards in written and oral expression of matriculants with French, it was decided in 2006 to focus on these weaknesses, working on texts and vocabulary” and “Tutorials focus on grammar exercises”. For the second-year course at the University of Stellenbosch, it is clearly stated in the course handout that progress is assessed in terms of student “ability in written and oral expression.”²⁵ Weighting differs between the two semesters of study since, although language tests carry the same weight, language carries less weight in the second semester (a decrease of 5% both for language work and the language laboratory²⁶), in order to accord increased importance to the study of literature). The mention under the sub-heading “Communication” of written and oral assignments leads me to conclude that this course subdivision is designed to develop oral and written comprehension skills. The course handout mentions a “variety of themes, complementing the literature component where such cultural and historical insight is felt to be necessary: francophonie (*sic*), second world war etc.”, the suggestion being, then, that communication is at the service of the teaching of literature. The inclusion of the individual oral under the heading ‘Literature’ would seem to signify that students’ oral production skills are assessed, at least during the semester-end oral examination, in terms of their ability to communicate on a subject of literature, indicating thereby that the importance accorded to the study of literature at the end of the second year of study is only slightly less than that given to language. Assessment is similarly expressed in terms of student “ability in written and oral expression” in the course handout for the first semester of the third-year of study, which is divided into three parts: language, literature and communication. The second semester of the third-year of study differs only in that the 45% of the final mark allotted to literature is subdivided into two separate categories: written and oral assignments and a literary dissertation²⁷. “Communication” is described in the student handout as “involv[ing]

²⁵ “Le progrès que vous faites est mesuré en fonction de votre capacité d’expression écrite ainsi qu’orale.” My translation.

²⁶ Tutorials, although “CALL based”, “focus on grammar exercises.” This is one of the elements that inform the conclusion I reach on pages 115-116

²⁷ The demerits of the literary dissertation are covered in Part Three: 216-217.

mostly professionally oriented skills such as translation, interpreting and business communication, although more cultural components are also offered at times.” Clearly, then, from the inclusion of translation and business communication, this third-year module must incorporate oral and written comprehension and production. We also see that at the University of Stellenbosch, the importance accorded to the study of literature increases as students progress through the undergraduate programme²⁸. Further, from the separation of language, literature and communication for all courses other than the beginners’ first-level course, we can conclude that literature is viewed as being apart from the enterprise of language acquisition, a possible indication that French is not taught communicatively.

French at the Tshwane University of Technology is, with German, Northern Sotho, Sign Language, Spanish, Tswana and Zulu, a practical third-language course. Students are required to have a symbol B or above in English and at least one other official South African language offered in the programme (currently Afrikaans and Northern Sotho). All practical language courses are offered from beginner’s level; the study of one of these languages (selected by the student) is compulsory for the three-year course of study leading to the National Diploma in Language Practice. Compulsory modules throughout the three years of study are General Language Dynamics and Language Translation and Practice, Computer Usage in first and second years, the Theory and Practice of Video in the first year, Intercultural Studies in the second year and Public Speaking in the final year. A fourth year, incorporating a fourth year of study of the language elective, is required for the degree of B Tech in Language Technology. The website of the Tshwane University of Technology describes the practical third language courses as “career-oriented third or foreign language courses” which “aim at functionally useful oral and written skills, and understanding of the relevant culture. Based on a communicative approach, (...) by the end of the fourth year, students should normally have a fair to good command of the language. Practical work is also done in conjunction with Language and Translation Practice”. Course objectives place this degree clearly within the domain of learner professionalisation, or special purposes learning, although this term is not used, and one may safely assume that the ability to communicate is one of the

²⁸ Literature counts for 35% for the first and second years of study (when semesters one and two of the second year are averaged) but for 45% for the final undergraduate year.

programme outcomes, but the imprecision of “fair to good” makes it difficult to ascertain at what level.

Although no completed questionnaire was returned by the University of the Western Cape, a photocopy of the 2007 University Calendar Part III Faculty of Arts (A) Undergraduate was made available. This document lists clearly the main outcomes for the study of French, which is housed in the Department of Foreign Languages. At first-year level, the outcomes of the full-year course are described as “Text Comprehension” and “basic communication skills”. At second-year level (accessed by continuing students from the first-year course and by students with Matriculation French who are fast-tracked into second year), there are four semester-long modules, all of which are compulsory for the student to proceed to third year. Outcomes of the second-level “French Language Advanced” course specify that students “should be able to consolidate their knowledge of French grammar, express themselves in French in the written form as well as orally”, and “translate short extracts of texts from English into French.” Upon completion of the other first-semester module, “French Language Intensive”, “[s]tudents should be able to speak in French on everyday topics” and “understand French and Francophone civilization”. Further, the description of the main content of the course mentions the development of “oral expression and comprehension through discussions (...) as well as comprehension exercises”. The two modules offered during the second semester of the second year are entitled “Functional/Business French” and “French Textual Analysis”. Upon completion of the former, students “should be able to understand French Business terminology” and “[e]xpress themselves in French in a written form as well as orally”, whereas, for the latter, they “should be able to identify different literary genres and authors” and “critically discuss French texts”. For the third-year of study, there are again two first-semester and two second-semester modules²⁹.

²⁹ In addition, there is a second-semester module (“Translation Theory” designed to give the student “a broad knowledge of translation theories and strategies”, to develop his “linguistic and cultural proficiency as well as his (...) reading skills and (...) ability to track down meaning beyond words”), which is clearly a module offered in English to all students enrolled for foreign languages, since the pre-requisite stipulates first- and second-level knowledge of a language discipline (Afrikaans, Arabic, English, French, German, Language and Communication, or Xhosa). The University Calendar does not detail any direct collaboration with colleagues from other language disciplines whereby students would put into practice the theoretical knowledge (acquired during the Translation Theory module) by working with the language for which they possess first- and second-level knowledge. However, the Head of the French Section at UWC has confirmed that such collaboration is the underlying principle behind the course, a principle which has proved logistically difficult to put into practice.

Outcomes for “Advanced French Text Comprehension” state that students should be able to “read newspaper articles in French, identify the elements of the journalistic style,” and “speak in French on everyday topics”; upon completion of “French Literature” they must know how to “identify different genres and authors of French literature” and “apply the concepts of literary analysis and terminology”. The first of the second-semester modules, “French Comparative Stylistics and Translation Practice”, is designed to equip students to “understand the principles of translation theory” and “translate different kinds of texts from English into French as well as from French into English”, whereas the second (“Functional French 2”) is to “analyze French Grammar” and “explain grammatical rules”. In general, from the course outcomes as described in the University Calendar of the University of the Western Cape, coherence in terms of learner progression is not immediately apparent in that the second-level module, which incorporates ‘advanced’ in its title and calls for students to translate into the foreign language when their knowledge of the language is either limited to two semesters of French at university or to school-level French, is offered **before** the third-year module which focuses on translation practice and which is presumably designed to prepare students to translate. Furthermore, the notion of expecting students to “analyze French Grammar” and “explain grammatical rules” upon completion of a module entitled “Functional French”, as opposed to functioning within the language by using it appropriately when communicating orally or in writing, seems to lack logic. Nor is there any obvious justification why learners of French, unless they are also students of linguistics or trainee teachers, should “explain grammatical rules”. Although communication skills are specified for the first-level course and for four of the second- and third-level modules (the progression being from “basic communication skills” to “everyday topics”), mention of analysis and explanation of French grammar and of translation into the foreign language at an early stage of language apprenticeship would seem to indicate that the focus of French-teaching at the University of the Western Cape is not communicative.

At the University of Zululand, the study of French leads to an interdisciplinary qualification, the B.A. degree in Language Studies. This is offered by the departments of African Languages, Afrikaans, English, General Linguistics, German and French and students must enrol for at least two languages. The degree,

not unlike that offered by the Tshwane University of Technology, caters explicitly for learner professionalisation; indeed, the university website states that the “qualification is designed to improve employability of learners in fields such as language teaching, translating, interpreting, editing, technical writing, creative writing, and tourism, where language practitioners with competency in more than one language are in demand.” Further, the degree outcomes are clearly detailed:

This degree offers the learner an opportunity to gain the ability to: speak, write and read at least two languages at a high level of competency; gain theoretical knowledge of the structure of languages and texts; appreciate, analyse and interpret literary and other texts at an advanced level; make a proficient translation of a variety of texts; produce a range of oral or written creative texts; work successfully in a team within the multilingual and multicultural South African context; and use information technology.

One must assume that it is taken for granted that students who graduate in a language having studied it at “an advanced level” possess a correspondingly “high level of competency” in understanding that language. The relative vagueness with which the skills level targeted is described, is not dissimilar to that of the Tshwane University of Technology. However, it is clear that (at least) three of the competences normally identified as being core skills in the language-learning enterprise are actively targeted. Further, the inclusion in programme outcomes of meta-cognitive linguistic awareness, intercultural aspects, teamwork and the use of IT³⁰ places the University of Zululand apart from the majority of the other South African institutions of higher learning, ten of which have retained aspects of the ‘traditional’ model that held sway prior to the era of the communicative approach (namely grammar disembodied from the communicative imperative and translation into the foreign language at an early stage of language acquisition) .

I turn now to the four South African universities for which I have more complete information: the universities of KwaZulu-Natal (Durban) for which course handouts have been made available, Johannesburg, and Rhodes (for which I have both the completed Annexure 19 questionnaire and student course handouts) and my

³⁰ These are all aspects which emerge throughout discussion of the model proposed in Part Three.

home institution, the University of Cape Town. At the University of Johannesburg, the first-level course comprises two semesters of study, the first “Basic French Language and Culture” is “a computer aided language course for beginners wishing to acquire basic French language skills” and the second (“Intermediate French Language and Culture”) is a “more advanced continuation” of the previous module. The other first-level course (for students with a pass in French at the Senior Certificate Matriculation examination) proposes a definition of civilisation, reviews 19th century French neo-classical and romantic painting, architecture, sculpture, clothing, furniture, scientific discoveries, daily life and impressionist painting during the first semester before proceeding in the course of the second semester to examine the history of French cinema and some representative classic films. The literature component of the first semester is an overview of French literature from classicism to symbolism, based on a corpus of poems, whereas the second semester literature module comprises selected poems by a French 19th century poet and “an analysis of a corpus of French short stories by representative twentieth century authors”. Furthermore, information in the course handout for one of the first-semester modules, entitled “*Analyse de texte*” (for which the prescribed text is *Pour étudier un poème*, F. Nayrolles, 1992), clarifies that students will learn how to undertake a detailed analysis of poem and prose texts. The second-level course, entitled “French Language and Text Production”, “offers a revision of French grammar and familiarises the student with advanced structural and grammatical problems and tests this knowledge through practical exercises and translation.” The undergraduate course information further states that the first semester course “offers an overview of the literature of the 20th century with literary analysis of selected texts”³¹; it also contains “a component on Francophone culture and civilization.” The second semester module (also called “French Language and Text Production”) is a continuation of the above and “reinforces advanced oral and written language skills through practical exercises and translation.” Further, it “reinforces the overview of the literature of the 20th century (...) and offers more advanced literary analysis of

³¹ This comprises study (with illustrative excerpts) of the novel from the following literary schools: realism, introspection, existentialism, the new novel, historical fiction, autobiography, and science fiction. In addition, there is a module on the Philosophy of the Absurd, which incorporates the study of three representative literary works.

selected texts.”³² The Undergraduate Course Information details four modules for the third level of study, the first two being “Advanced French Composition and Stylistics”, (the aim of which is “to refine writing and reading skills, and to enable students to interpret a wide range of texts representing all aspects of contemporary French usage”) and “Negotiating Language” (during which “both oral and written language skills are refined”, “different registers of the language are explored, for instance in business situations”³³. The third module (“Selected Topics in French Literature”) “offers a specialized study in 19th and 20th century literature, in particular (...) French and African writing of the colonial era” and the fourth (“French Literature Reading Course”) “offers an in depth exploration of selected canonical texts in French or Francophone literature”, whereby “texts are studied in the context of the socio-political and literary background of the period chosen.”³⁴ According to the student handout, class tests and assignments take the form of oral or written presentations for the first-level civilisation module; no other details relating to assessment are given other than that, for literature modules, this takes the form of text analyses, and more frequently, literary dissertations. Despite the mention that certain modules are designed to refine oral and written language skills and to introduce students to a variety of language registers, the focus of the programmes offered to students studying French at the University of Johannesburg is clearly literary. Given the emphasis on translation, text analysis and literary dissertation, coupled with the way in which French for business situations is conceived as a hybrid of skills acquisition and grammatical rules (cf. footnotes 32, 34), one might question whether students graduating in French at that institution could interact effectively in the language in an authentic situation of communication, without having had some additional exposure to the language. Course objectives are not stated in pedagogical terms. Indeed, despite the fact that one textbook designed to teach French as a Foreign Language is used in the early stages³⁵, it appears that

³² It appears from the course handout that this involves an overview of French drama of the mid-twentieth century, the analysis of several extracts and of three complete plays.

³³ The course handout details this as knowing how to write a résumé, the minutes of a meeting, a synthesis, a letter of motivation and how to carry out a telephone conversation, past tenses, the subjunctive mood, the conditional tense, present participle, verbal adjective and gerundive.

³⁴ According to the course handout, this includes analysis of three 17th century texts and three 18th century works.

³⁵ *Campus* (Girardet & Pécheur, 2005), the second textbook to be prescribed for study. Initially the textbook *Contacts* (Valette, J.-P., Valette, R., 2001) is used for the beginners’ course. The latter does not really constitute a *FLE* textbook, as it is annotated in English.

French is not taught communicatively at the University of Johannesburg and that comprehension and production skills are defined in terms of literature.

The University of KwaZulu-Natal (Durban) specifies clearly “course aims” for second and third years, “course outcomes” only for the first-level course, and both “course aims” and “objectives” for the second and third years of study. First-level course outcomes bear witness to pedagogical reflection and are expressed, with supporting detail, in terms of competences: speak, understand, read and understand, and recognise “that basis (*sic*) cultural differences do exist, and that learning a language enables a person to better understand and interact with the people who use the language natively.” Equally, for the second-level course (referred to as an “intermediate course”), the student handout specifies clearly the aim of the course as being: “to achieve communicative competence in French in increasingly complex situations, involving the recognition and expression of feelings and opinions and the capacity to recognise and use a wide vocabulary. Students are introduced to the techniques of literary analysis in French and to contemporary socio-cultural issues related to the Francophone world.” Students understand clearly what is expected of them upon completion of the course, in that they “should be able to speak in French using the present, past, future and conditional tenses in personal and professional contexts, narrate events and tell stories in the past, understand and express intention, excuses, justifications, ask and give advice, and information in oral and written form, understand and express opinions about literary texts in French, [and] critically discuss contemporary socio-cultural issues relating to France and Francophone countries.” The third-level course aims and objectives are equally clearly described. The aims are stipulated as “an advanced facility in understanding, speaking, reading and writing French; to actualise the student’s intellectual abilities (such as analysis and synthesis of information) in the foreign language; and to expose students to aspects of Francophone culture and civilisation.” Upon completion of the third-level course, students are instructed that they will be expected to “speak in French about [their] interests, express [their] position on an issue, make choices, express the cause, consequence and objective of an act, structure a logical argument, express ownership, express the chronological order of a chain of events, and read literary texts in French, express critical, reasoned opinions on the narration and on cultural phenomena.” Although during the third year of study, the course handout details a

weekly ninety-minute contact period for grammar and vocabulary, during which the grammatical concept is presented first and then illustrated by oral exercises in class and by written exercises completed during the student's own time, in general terms language is perceived in terms of illocutionary acts, and competences are developed in logical, sequenced progression. At second-year level, the marks awarded for literature assignments amount to 15% of the 50% allotted to coursework (the weighting for the end-of-semester examination is not specified); at the third-year level, this weighting increases to 20% for the first semester and to 25% for the second semester (15% for literature oral and written assignments and 10% for the self-study project, a 3000-3500 word essay on a literary work of the student's choice). It is particularly noteworthy that the manner in which course objectives are formulated ("Read literary texts in French, express critical, reasoned opinions on the narration and on cultural phenomena") indicates a desire to place the study of literature written in French within the enterprise of skills acquisition and development. Indeed, the prescribed books for language acquisition are informative in this regard: published fairly recently in France, they are compiled by experts in the field of *FLE* teaching³⁶. Clearly, then, at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, undergraduate courses in French do not exist merely as a 'smokescreen' for the teaching of literature but seek rather to promote language acquisition by placing the learner in authentic situations of communication; within this enterprise, it would appear that there is an attempt to integrate the study of literary texts with considerable pedagogical sensitivity.

At Rhodes University, the course handout for the beginners' entry-level French (a whole-year course, cf. Table 1, 80-81) states that the "course aims to develop the four basic language skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing". Moreover, course objectives are specified:

By the end of the first semester you will be able to greet people, introduce yourself, describe your family and say where you live. You will also be able to tell the time, talk about going shopping, ask for and give directions, make bookings and buy plane and train tickets. In addition, you will be able to read, write and understand simple

³⁶ *Campus 1* and *2* for the first- and second-levels of study, *Campus 3* (Girardet & Pécheur, 2005) and *L'Expression française écrite et orale* (Abbadie, Chovelon, Morsel) at third-year level.

French. During the second semester the basic skills you have acquired will be extended. You will learn how to describe your home, your leisure pursuits, your likes and dislikes. You will be able to describe simple illnesses, tell others about your future plans and what you used to do, speak on the phone, buy clothes and talk about the weather.

In addition, the course handout lists the “grammatical concepts to be looked at during the year”, which include structures usually associated with basic language acquisition, and states that “some short stories” will be read and “some aspects of French culture” will be reviewed in class. Assessment is weighted more heavily in the second semester, with 60% of the final mark going to the November examination which “tests (...) vocabulary, listening, oral and written skills”. It is unclear why, when there is no shortage of appropriate textbooks published in France that cater for face-to-face learning, the prescribed textbook for the entry-level course³⁷ should be one that has been designed for distance-learning, unless it is because staff members deem it necessary to prescribe a textbook with grammatical and other explanations in English. French I is a two-semester long programme for students who have either passed the entry-level, or “French Preliminary”, course with a distinction or who have French at Matriculation (D symbol or above). The course outline stipulates that the course “reinforces written language skills through an overview of grammar, a practical language component and translation into both French and English (...). There is an introduction to essay writing in French. Spoken skills are developed through weekly conversation classes.” One work of literature is prescribed for the first semester and three for the second semester, during which students must attend “one translation class, one grammar class and two literature lectures a week” as well as one “conversation tutorial”, continued from the first semester. French II “further develops written language skills by means of translation and other practical language activities, where the emphasis is on the fields of tourism and French / Francophone culture. (...) Skills in literary analysis and essay writing are developed.” With this in mind, the programme requires that each week students attend one conversation tutorial, one translation class, and two literature lectures³⁸. In addition, there is a class “on more practical aspects of French – contemporary French/Francophone culture in

³⁷ Bougard & Bourdais. 1994. *BBC The French Experience I (New Edition)*. BBC Books.

³⁸ Three works of literature, all of which, with the exception of some poetry, are twentieth or twenty-first century texts, are analysed each semester.

the first semester and touristic (*sic*) French in the second semester” designed to “develop listening as well as written and oral skills” which require that students “do some transcriptions of French”³⁹ and “make a short oral presentation on a particular topic.” The sixth contact period is “used for a variety of purposes, including grammar work and dissertation planning.” It is also used to introduce students “to the French way of analysing texts”. The latter two classes are retained at French III level, with one change: the addition of Business French or “contemporary French/Francophone culture” to French for Tourism. In fact, the organisation of French III differs little from that of French II, other than the seven (as opposed to six) weekly contact periods, the extra class being given over to the study of literature (which increases from six to nine literary works spanning the seventeenth to the twentieth centuries). The course aim is to offer “advanced translation and further [develop] practical language skills in the fields of tourism and commerce.” Course objectives are specified for only one of the four undergraduate years of study of French at Rhodes University, the entry-level Preliminary French programme, for which the prescribed textbook is the sole language-acquisition textbook prescribed for undergraduate use to include communicative exercises.⁴⁰ Indeed, course aims for years 1 to 3 clearly prioritise written French, which is confirmed by the division that is drawn between ‘grammar’ and other language knowledge, as well as by relegating spoken skills to a weekly conversation tutorial, the weighting of which decreases as the student proceeds through the undergraduate programme (amounting to one fifth of face-to-face learning in French I, one sixth in French II, and one seventh in French III). Indeed, it is apparent from the inclusion at the first-year level of “translation into both French and English” and from the frequent mention of “grammar”, that aspects of the Grammar-Translation Method of language teaching are still being implemented at Rhodes University. Also indicative of the emphasis that is placed on written French is that, out of a nine-and-a-half page booklet distributed to undergraduate students and entitled “French Studies 2007”, which contains practical information on plagiarism, quotations, the library, the French seminar library, DP

³⁹ It is unclear as to how a transcription would differ from a dictation, unless the difference resides in a recorded, as opposed to a live, voice.

⁴⁰ *Grammaire progressive du français niveau intermédiaire* (Grégoire & Thiévenez, 1995) is prescribed for French I, *Grammaire progressive du français niveau avancé* (Boularès & Frérot, 1997) for French II, and *Vocabulaire progressif du français niveau avancé* (Miquet, 1999) for French III. Although these are undoubtedly useful for consolidating grammatical and lexical items by means of structural exercises, they allow for little communicative exploitation.

requirements and so on, one and a half pages are devoted to the literary dissertation in French. Clearly, and despite the inclusion of 'French for Special Purposes', French is perceived at Rhodes University less as an instrument of communication and more as a gateway to literature, the appreciation of which is understood in terms of two specific techniques - text analysis and the literary dissertation.

Finally, I come to my home institution. The handbook for the Faculty of Humanities of the University of Cape Town specifies course outlines for courses offered within the School of Languages and Literatures. For the first semester of the beginners' entry-level course, "[t]he aim of the course is to provide a practical knowledge of spoken and written French", and for the second semester, the "aim (...) is to provide a practical knowledge of spoken and written French of approximately Matriculation standard." The description continues by adding: "There is no literature component." The course outline for the second-level course offered to continuing students or to those with a symbol C or above at Matriculation, specifies that the "course comprises French language at intermediate level, an introduction to French and Francophone cultures and literatures, and French media". The third-year level course in French Language and Literature is described as "[a]dvanced language work, including translation; 17th-20th century prose, poetry and theatre, which may include African and North African literature written in French." The other third-level major offered in French at the University of Cape Town (Business French is described in the Faculty handbook as being an "introduction to economics, law, marketing and business communication in a Francophone environment, to a level which prepares students to take the CCIP (Paris Chamber of Commerce & Industry) international examinations" and as "[a]dvanced language work including translation." Analysis of student handouts reveals that within the French Section of the University of Cape Town there is some inconsistency in the provision of course aims and outcomes. Whereas none is specified for the entry-level course, aims and outcomes are detailed for the second-level course, for Business French, the language component of both third-year majors and for rare literature modules. Where course aims are specified, they are expressed in terms of core competencies, which are broken down into tasks that the learner should be able to accomplish upon completion of the course. Since these are formulated as part of the proposed model for tertiary-level FLE in Part Three of this thesis, I shall not pursue the topic here.

Finally, I come to a practical consideration that may impact on the modalities of teaching French at South African tertiary institutions: staffing. Tables 10 and 11 reflect data on staffing and total student enrolments in undergraduate French over the 2005-2007 period, obtained from the completed questionnaires.

Table 10
Staffing provision for French at four South African universities during the period 2005-2007

Institution	Staff complement		
	2005	2006	2007
Cape Town	3 permanent 1 contract	3 permanent 1 contract	3 permanent 1 contract
Johannesburg	2 permanent 1 contract 4 part-time contract	2 permanent 1 contract 4 part-time contract	2 permanent 1 contract 4 part-time contract
KZN (Pmb.)	1 permanent 2 contract	1 permanent 2 contract	1 permanent 2 contract
Rhodes	1 permanent 2 contract	1 permanent 2 contract	1 permanent 2 contract

Table 11
Total first-semester undergraduate student enrolments in French at four South African universities during the period 2005-2007

Institution	Total student enrolment for French		
	2005	2006	2007
Cape Town	202	268*	191
Johannesburg	158	110	116
KZN (Pmb.)	46	35	32
Rhodes	87	93	116

**This figure is an anomaly; since 2002, total student enrolments in French are stable at around 200*

All universities, for which data are available, have recourse to at least one full-time staff member employed on a contractual basis. One can understand institutional unwillingness to make permanent appointments if there is a trend of

decreasing student enrolments, which appears to be the case for two of the universities in Table 11. However, there is clearly an obvious element of precariousness associated with contract posts, especially in a situation of increasing student numbers (as is the case with Rhodes University) which could both discourage staff from curriculum review and development and mean that, quite simply, they do not have the time for such an undertaking. Indeed, at the University of Cape Town, there has been a decrease in permanent academic staff for the teaching of French over the last decade (see Annexure 18), whereas there has been no decline in student enrolments; this may signal institutional incomprehension of the specificities of staffing needs for effective language teaching.

What conclusions can be drawn on the practice of teaching French at South African universities in the early years of the twenty-first century from the data available? Firstly, it is possible to conclude that there is no common approach. This inconsistency is to be found not only across institutions but also within individual sections of French of one university. We have noted that this concerns variable marks-weighting, imperfect identification of course objectives and outcomes, incoherence in module designation and content, as well as deficient awareness of learner progression. Although the choice of assessment model does not appear to affect pass and continuation rates, the examinations-only system, by its very nature, is an imperfect tool for measuring learner progression in the four competences that are generally recognised as constituting language acquisition, whereas continuous assessment can, through regular application of its diverse modalities, evaluate those competences objectively. As to differences in approach, whereas some French sections display evidence of serious pedagogical reflection, a commitment to the appropriateness of communicative imperatives for language teaching-learning strategies, and a concomitant desire to innovate, most have retained elements from the Grammar-Translation model, text analysis and the literary dissertation as a means to test learner performance. Further, at the majority of South African universities, literature written in French is perceived as a window on to unfamiliar cultural realities, but is set aside from the essential enterprise of language acquisition. In this way, language is viewed as a gateway to the teaching of literature; it is placed at the service of literature and subservient to it in a pedagogically-questionable role-reversal. Moreover, across all South African universities, there is no generalised use

of technology, signifying that a wealth of potential pedagogical resource material and new teaching-learning modalities is under-utilised. Explicit acknowledgement of students' familiarity with, and fondness for, multi-media is limited to one department with the aim of keeping abreast of societal changes and offering a course that is both appealing and useful to students by being anchored in realities of the twenty-first century⁴¹, indicating an acknowledgement of the increased resources and more varied learning activities that are to be derived from judicious use of technology. Indeed, one may conclude from the use made by two of the universities canvassed of Web-based language exercises at the beginners' level that an astute use of technology may translate to a gain in learning-time. This is particularly helpful since, as possibilities for the study of non-South African languages at secondary schools declines, tertiary institutions have increasingly to teach language courses at the elementary level⁴². Indeed, from the data gathered, it would appear that only just under one third of South African universities offering French⁴³ can manage to offer two different first-level courses in French, one for complete beginners and the other for students with school-level French. Finally, at an institutional level, it would appear that there is no shared vision regarding the number of contact hours required for French to have major status, language requirements and subject clusters.

⁴¹ Acknowledgement of the importance of technology in modern-day society as well as its potential in teaching-learning strategies underpins the decision by the French Section of the University of Cape Town to include in the curriculum for the 2009 Masters degree in Teaching French as a Foreign Language a module on Language Teaching and Technologies.

⁴² This aspect is given further consideration in Part Three: 6-7.

⁴³ The universities of Johannesburg, Pretoria, Rhodes and Stellenbosch.

Chapter 2 – Theoretically ...

Theoretical aspects of language-teaching at the turn of the century

In the preceding chapter, undergraduate teaching of French at South African universities during the early years of the twenty-first century was examined and various differences were noted, including in methodology. The continued use of the Grammar-Translation Method and of textual analysis of literary texts at many tertiary institutions would seem to indicate a lack of awareness of the evolution in learning theories and pedagogy, and that the specificities of teaching French as a **foreign** language tend to be largely overlooked. In Part One, we traced the long legacy of Western language-teaching and noted that insistence on correct grammatical forms, practice of those forms through translation and analysis of the works of great authors, held sway for many years; it is this which may well explain the continued existence of that methodology to this day. However, in Part One (27), I criticised the Grammar-Translation Method through which language is conceived of as being a set of neatly classifiable rules and exceptions, as lacking any theoretical basis, be it in linguistics, psychology or the science of education. If I am to propose a replacement model for present-day, tertiary-level French in South Africa, then the methodological context must be completed by giving attention to more recent evolutions in learning theory and practice. What follows, then, aims to contextualise those evolutions and to signal what could be brought into play.

In this regard, I firstly refer briefly to recent manifestations of the “shift of model”: the considerable impact that language policies adopted by the member states of the European Union has had since the 1970s on the theory and practice of foreign-language teaching, as well as on textbook creation and design. Indeed, since there is scant production of pedagogical material for non-national languages, and minimal interrogation around foreign-language teaching in South Africa, advances made in this area in Europe⁴⁴ become of particular relevance beyond the borders of this country. These advances can be traced back⁴⁵ to 1971, a pivotal year in Europe,

⁴⁴ I have omitted the Delft Method (brainchild of the Dutch linguist Veering), which began in the 1950s. Not unlike the Direct Method, it was used by certain institutions in the 1990s; however, it involves 6 months full-time immersion and is, therefore, beyond the scope of regular educational practice.

⁴⁵ The 1997 report *Eurydice – Information network on education in Europe* (www.eurydice.org/) is a useful source of information on developments in education within the European Union.

during which a group of experts appointed by the Council of Europe was charged with designing a European system of cumulative course credits, valid in the different countries for foreign-language instruction to adults. From then onwards, throughout the entire decade of the 1970s and into the 1980s, the Council of Europe was extremely active in publishing works by its experts, in particular the different ‘threshold levels’ which provided an inventory of basic linguistic concepts and functions, mastery of which was deemed necessary for beginners⁴⁶. These documents influenced the design of foreign-language curricula and textbooks in several European countries; further, the Departments of Education of these countries gradually adopted the Communicative Approach for foreign-language teaching at school level. Clearly, the development of foreign languages did not develop in a linear fashion; there were country-specific differences and time-lags as a function of individual governments’ national priorities. However, distinct trends are readily observable, such as a freer choice of teaching materials focusing on communication, the implementation of a more communicative approach in the development of assessment procedures, of the prioritising of play as a teaching-learning strategy, of authentic pedagogical material, as well as reference to learners’ personal experiences during the language-learning process. The 1990s in Europe saw increasingly greater emphasis being placed on those forms of learning which mix play and work and encourage personal development and individual progress of the learner, on oral expression and learner participation. This move to bring foreign-language speaking and listening skills to the fore highlighted, in turn, the desirability of an appropriate use of the target-language as the language of instruction. Moreover, by the late 1990s, it had become common European practice to adopt textbooks that differentiated clearly degrees of difficulty in the acquisition of foreign-language skills, and to favour a more active methodology which incorporated small-group learning activities. Further, and in contrast to the earlier years of centrally-designed curricula, greater freedom of choice in teaching materials and widespread priority being given to the acquisition of practical and functional linguistic skills opened the door for information about the society and culture of the foreign language (with emphasis on democratic values) largely as the result of the *Common European*

⁴⁶ Annexure 5 contains fuller information on Threshold Levels. In Part Three (173), I make reference to the Threshold concept when proposing a model for tertiary-level French in South Africa.

*Framework of Reference*⁴⁷ for language teaching and the *European Language Portfolio*⁴⁸, awareness of the need both for some degree of foreign-language mastery and for language-learning to extend beyond school years, began to permeate societies.

Alongside these developments, there was a change in attitude towards teacher-training in Europe. Initial training in the United Kingdom, for example, had begun to emphasise the communicative approach and the use of new technologies as early as the 1960s. In the 1970s within continental Europe, teacher-training started to move from being philology-based (stressing the history of the language, knowledge of its ancient forms and texts, original texts and their comparison with foreign literature) to incorporating subject-related teaching methodology and teacher-training in oral skills. The 1990s witnessed an important transformation with the acknowledgement of the benefit to be derived from highly-specialised language teachers, increased emphasis on active use of the foreign language in interaction with learners. This has involved embracing audio-visual technologies, such as sound and image recording, as well as television broadcasts in the target language, and viewing these pedagogical supports as a mainstay in foreign-language teaching. Indeed, since the 1990s, when most European countries published recommendations advocating the use of information and communication technologies for school use for all subjects, many European school systems have come to view the potential contribution of computer technology as being of even greater importance than that of audio-visual supports; in fact, a growing number of countries have begun to apply new technologies to foreign-language teaching methodology, with the use of computer-based exercises to teach 'basic subjects' such as the first foreign language. Furthermore, over the last thirty years, every European country has revisited the question of how much time should be allocated to foreign languages and (with the exception of Ireland where subject choice has been retained) made the study of at least one foreign language compulsory for all school pupils. During this period of reform in Europe, in South Africa, the Department of Education has

⁴⁷ Annexure 5 details the *Common European Framework of Reference*; in addition, I refer to it for the proposed model of tertiary level *FLE* in Part Three (172, 244).

⁴⁸ This consists of a passport, a linguistic C.V. and a dossier. It bears the logo of the Council of Europe and records the holder's formal qualifications and foreign-language learning experiences. The aim is to contribute to the mobility of citizens within Europe through the creation of an instrument which records and places value on lifelong language-learning.

contemporaneously been involved in the promotion of national languages and in interrogating methodologies for their teaching. Consequently, non-national, or foreign languages, have been relegated to a minor status; the dearth of South African-produced learning materials and limited interest in foreign-language methodologies (referred to on page 133) are, therefore, readily understood. In this context, this overview of how, during the closing decades of the twentieth century, educational language policies in Europe have contributed to reforming methods, approaches, and techniques can give context to developments in learning theories over the same time period and inform discussions around modifying the current practice of teaching French at South African institutions of higher learning.

I have signalled that a “shift of model” in governmental language policy can affect how language-teaching is perceived and have identified those aspects which European specialists advocate for successful foreign-language teaching, namely: a communicative imperative underpinning materials and assessment procedures; a focus on learner progression by differentiating degrees of difficulty; authentic pedagogical material linked to learner experiences and the socio-cultural framework of the foreign language; and an active, small-group methodology. I turn now to the theoretical backdrop to current European practice. In Part One, we saw that during the last few decades of the twentieth century, three major language-learning issues concerned researchers and foreign-language teachers alike: the first- and second-language connection (the disparity in the learner’s mind between the inevitable dominance of the first language and the weakness of the second language), the explicit-implicit option (or the choice between a conscious or more automatic language-learning method), and the code-communication dilemma (whereby learners must pay attention both to linguistic forms and to genuine communication). Thus, we noted the perceived inability of Structuralism to take into account the fundamental characteristics of language, the functional linguistics of Firth and Halliday (cf. page 63), the work of American sociolinguists, such as Hymes (cf. page 68), of philosophers Austin and Searle (cf. pages 66-68), and the observed failure of structurally competent learners to be communicatively competent which fostered the emergence of the Communicative Approach (cf. 68-72). Here I would point to the important work of Wilkins, which “takes the desired communicative capacity as the starting-point” and the consequence of organizing “language teaching in terms of

content rather than on the forms of the language” (1976: 18), which resulted in the idea of a ‘notional syllabus’. Not only did Wilkins’s analysis of the functional meaning⁴⁹ underlying the communicative uses of language culminate in the *Threshold Level* of the Council of Europe but it also led to the consolidation of The Communicative Approach, the influence of which continues on foreign-language-teaching practice to this day. Indeed, the importance of the legacy of the Communicative Approach cannot be underestimated. To it we owe increasing concern with the meaning potentialities of language, an awareness of the complexity of the form-function relationship in language and of communication reaching beyond the sentence into the whole conversation or text. Furthermore, the notion of the applicability of ‘communicative’ to the four language skills holds fast to this day, as does the understanding that language must be not only accurate but also appropriate and that this, in turn, must impact on assessment methods, choice of pedagogical material and activities. Moreover, it is thanks to the Communicative Approach that there is a more generalised acknowledgement of the importance of realistic and motivating language practice and, because latterly this approach has not recoiled from using learners’ knowledge and experience of their mother tongue, a greater meta-linguistic reflection.

However, as Richards and Rodgers indicate (1986: 64-75), and despite commonalities⁵⁰, this does not imply uniformity since there is no single model, no single text. In fact, understanding of the Communicative Approach differs from author to author, thus giving rise to several models for syllabus-design arranged around differing central elements: structures plus functions, a functional spiral around a structural core, functional, notional, interactional, task-based and learner-generated. Indeed, Breen sees in this the co-existence of two principal paradigms: the propositional (emphasising structure and function) and the procedural (based on tasks and process). General characteristics of the procedural approach that he highlights are views of language (as described above for the Communicative Approach) and teaching methodology which advocates a necessary balance between planning objectives and content, whereby close attention is paid to the development of classroom implementation. He further emphasises the importance of learners’

⁴⁹ See in this regard illocutionary acts (Part One: 66 and footnote 94).

⁵⁰ Cf. Part One, 65-73.

contributions in that classroom interaction and context (not content) are the basis for learning. Further, planning that prioritises the teaching-learning process (as well as activities and roles) over content (1987: 157-160). Gray observes that the shift in emphasis from content to process - from the **what** to the **how** – signifies that what is to be learned is internal to the learner. The ‘what’, then, is negotiated between teachers and learners (who thus become decision-makers). In this way, the content is no longer the province of the expert, but becomes subject-matter for the learner. Thus, objectives can be described after the learning process since achievement is viewed in relation to the learner’s criteria for success in a process during which the educator accompanies the learner (1990: 262). The task-based model of the procedural approach organises learning around **how** a learner applies his communicative competence to carry out a series of tasks (sequenced from familiar to complex) and may result in a dual syllabus centred on communication tasks (actual tasks undertaken when communicating) as well as on enabling tasks (prioritising linguistic rules and conventions, interpersonal knowledge and meaning). By contrast, process-based models are three-pronged: communication, learning and social activity. In effect, the nature of classroom practice is the means of achieving communication and learning, and classroom work (centred on un-sequenced pedagogical activities and tasks) is negotiated jointly by educators and learners. In practice, Breen (1987: 166-7) summarises this as participation (individual, pair, group, whole class, and the role of the educator), procedure (activity, task, resources, length of time, sharing and assessment of outcomes), and subject-matter (focus and learning purposes). Clearly, foreign-language teaching in the 1980s has been the subject of much fertile reflection and a domain for innovative measures, many of which have survived beyond the 1980s and 1990s into current educational practice.

It was during the 1990s that educators began to sense the enormous potential of new technologies in the learning-teaching process. Interestingly, this can be viewed as a case of practice preceding theory. The possibility of incorporating E-learning (used originally for Defence Force and corporate training) into more conventional teaching-learning strategies was quickly seized upon by creative, practising educators in search of ‘new’ ways of conceiving learning strategies. Of course, it is not uncommon to want to legitimise practice through theory. In fact, proponents of the use of new technologies as a learning strategy have found an

appropriate theoretical support in the cluster of learning theories on how knowledge is constructed, that we know as Constructivist Learning Theory⁵¹, a theoretical framework embraced by cognitivists, instructivists and behaviourists alike. According to Constructivism, a learning theory formalised by Piaget⁵² which centres on scaffolding, structure and guidance, learners internalise and construct new knowledge from experiences through the mechanisms of accommodation and assimilation. Essentially ‘accommodation’ signifies adjusting one’s mental representation of the external world to realign with new experiences (simply put, failure leads to learning), whereas assimilation involves incorporating the new experience into an already-existing mental construct without altering the latter (because there is either true alignment of experience or an inability to change deficient understanding)⁵³. Clearly, since constructivist theory does not promote any particular pedagogy but describes rather **how** learning takes place through scaffolding, structure and guidance, it is associated with pedagogies that promote ‘learning by doing’. It is undoubtedly because of its impositional tendency that a subset of Constructivism (Social Constructivism) emerged to counterbalance the harshly didactic with the creation of interactive space. In fact, the genesis of Social Constructivism⁵⁴ can be traced back to Vygotsky’s 1978 study and his activity theory⁵⁵, although Wood views it as the encounter between aspects of Piaget’s work with that of Vygotsky (1998: 39). As it stands, the fabric of Social Constructivism can be said to comprise a second strand in addition to the activity theory, in the shape of communities of practice. In general terms, Social Constructivism acknowledges

⁵¹ I am grateful to Dr Tony Carr, from the Centre for Higher Education Development of the University of Cape Town, for engaging in debate on this hypothesis.

⁵² For information on Piaget’s role and opinions, cf. Part One: 18, 19, 21, 22, including footnotes 25, 26, 34, 35, 37. I have chosen to omit Papert’s learning theory of Constructionism as being of less direct relevance to the didactics of undergraduate *FLE*: Papert retains all the elements of Piaget’s Constructivism, and concludes that constructivist learning is particularly successful when learners are engaged in completion of a project, such as the construction of an item, a book, computer programme or a sand castle, for instance. Nevertheless, I retain the ‘actional’ aspect of Constructionism in the notion that the learner, an active participant in his own language apprenticeship, learns by doing (cf. the model proposed in Part Three).

⁵³ These Constructivist notions of ‘accommodation’ and ‘assimilation’ underpin the pedagogical activities for literature study which I advocate in Part Three (123-129, 192) and Annexures 1 and 2, in that, using the structure of their own life experiences as a point of departure, learners are guided towards interrogating their own belief systems. From a philosophical standpoint, this dovetails with notions that I have retained from Barthes, Séoud, and Alter (Part Three 164-165).

⁵⁴ Holmes was the first to use the term ‘communal constructivism’ (Holmes et al., 2001)

⁵⁵ The activity theory was further refined by Leontiev (1974); subsequently, during the latter two decades of the twentieth century, Engeström extended it to incorporate expansive learning within activity systems (1999).

the uniqueness of each individual, both in terms of needs and background. Indeed, according to Wertsch (1998), the complexity of such uniqueness is to be encouraged, exploited and rewarded. The theory acknowledges that symbol systems (such as language) are inherited culturally and learned throughout life, by means of interacting socially with more knowledgeable members of society. In this way, the learner's cultural background must be taken into account during the learning process since it informs the knowledge and truth that he creates during the learning process. With this theory, the learner, who will instinctively search for meaning, is an active participant in, and takes increasing responsibility for, the learning process. Indeed, Prawat and Floden (1994) state that the learner's feelings of competence and belief in his own ability to solve problems and find meaning are more powerful in creating and sustaining motivation than external acknowledgement or motivation. Moreover, according to Bauersfeld (1995), as negotiation of taken-as-shared meaning evolves into 'languaging' in social groups, educators need to be facilitators rather than teachers. Indeed, Gamoran, Secada & Marrett (1998) perceive this as a shift from the teacher and subject matter to the learner⁵⁶. Brownstein (2001) points to the supportive nature of the learning environment, in which the teacher-facilitator, by asking questions and fostering dialogue, aids the learner to become an effective thinker and to reach conclusions. With learning being construed as an active, social process, intuitive thinking is encouraged. Indeed, Social Constructivist scholars argue that knowledge is socially and culturally constructed by humans. For example, Kukla (2000), dealing with communities of practice, maintains that through our activities we construct reality, which does not exist prior to our social invention of it and McMahon (1997) that meaningful learning occurs when individuals are engaged in social activities. Moreover, according to Holt & Willard-Holt (2000), the Social Constructionist viewpoint holds that the facilitator and learner are mutually engaged in learning from each other in such a way that there is a dynamic interaction between task, instructor and learner, with the latter comparing his version of the truth with that of the facilitator and other learners so as to reach a socially-tested version of that truth. Thus, the social constructivist standpoint is that decontextualised knowledge does not equip learners with the skills to apply their understanding to authentic tasks,

⁵⁶ In Part Three (156-157), the triangular pedagogical relationship, which I advocate, shares many elements with the Social Constructivist notion of the role of the instructor, learner and learning, which is further explained by the flowchart 2 on page 247.

based on the assumption that “there is no one set of generalised learning laws with each law applying to all domains” (Di Vesta, 1987: 208); in this way, the context and manner in which learning takes place become central to the learning process, giving rise to authentic or situated learning⁵⁷. Thus, to use Ackerman’s example, cognitive apprenticeship, attempts to “enculturate students into authentic practices through activity and social interaction in a way similar to that evident, and evidently successful, in craft apprenticeship” (1996: 25). Clearly then, interactive learning can involve reciprocal teaching, problem-based instruction, web quests, anchored instruction and peer collaboration (the latter, clearly in opposition to ‘traditional’ competitive approaches, taking on a variety of forms of learning with others – small group work, tandem and trio learning organised vertically, horizontally or diagonally according to skills levels⁵⁸). With regard to reciprocal learning, it is appropriate here to mention Martin’s model of *Lernen durch Lehren* (LdL or ‘learning by teaching’). Martin’s successful 1980 experience with getting his students to teach French to their peers and his quarter century of active research on the topic have led to the establishment in Germany of LdL and its inclusion in the curriculum of all pedagogical studies in that country. As the name indicates, it implies an active group-learning strategy: the teacher’s role is limited to one of guidance and clarification; learners are involved in presentation to their peers of carefully-selected information organised into manageable learning-units by the teacher, in peer-work on that material and, moreover, in peer-assessment. Learners are ideally active 80% of the time, the teacher for 20%⁵⁹, material is presented from a learner perspective, with learning-units limited to a maximum of twenty minutes, thereby enabling learners to define and refine their learning strategies; since there is peer-teaching, educators can

⁵⁷ The notion of authentic or situated learning underpin the widespread use of authentic documents and of pedagogical activities which seek to place the learner “en situation de communication” that characterise much recently-published material for use in classes of *FLE*. Clearly, this ‘learning by doing’ is in opposition to content-based learning which relies solely on the transference of decontextualised knowledge from expert to pupil. It is a notion that I embraced wholeheartedly when designing the pedagogical material that is included in the Annexures.

⁵⁸ Tertiary-level educators who may be reluctant to implement approaches which involve learning with others will find Vygotsky’s notion of proximal development helpful. It can be viewed as the gap between the actual developmental level (as determined by independent problem-solving) and that of problem-solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more skilled peers. Unlike Piaget, who determined fixed stages of biological development, Vygotsky argues that scaffolding can enable the learner to extend himself beyond his physical maturation, in that the learning process (achieved collaboratively) can overtake the development process.

⁵⁹ I have retained this percentage for the model proposed in Part Three (158).

spend more time helping individual learners with their difficulties; the social aspect of learning is highlighted, and learner autonomy is fostered.

For all teaching-learning strategies based on Constructivist Learning Theory, assessment can be seen as a continuous and interactive process which measures achievement of the learner, the quality of the learning experience and of the course material; further, assessment feedback may be perceived as the direct foundation for further development of teaching-learning strategies, courseware, and assessment methods⁶⁰. Since Constructivism holds that learners progress, not by being told what will occur, but by experiencing it themselves (the ‘learning by doing’ or task-based model to which I have referred on page 195), making inferences and drawing conclusions based on previously-acquired information, they may well make mistakes when retrieving the new information, the ‘reconstruction error’ of completing lacunae with logical, but incorrect thoughts. Educators must, then, be alert to these reconstruction errors and correct them. Moreover, when educators target previous successes as the foundation for future undertakings, as is the case with carefully-crafted scaffolding, learner self-confidence is fostered. By challenging learners constantly with tasks or skills slightly above their current level of mastery (in line, then, with Vygotsky’s notion of proximal development as explained in footnote 58), learner motivation is enhanced. Learners are fully challenged when the task and the learning environment reflect the complexity of the environment in which the learner should be able to function at the end of the learning; in this way, learners can take ownership not only of the learning or problem-solving process but also of the problem itself⁶¹. Indeed, according to the tenets of Constructivist Learning Theory, the foundations of a subject may be taught to anybody at any stage in some form, signifying that educators must first introduce the basic ideas that give life and form to the subject matter to be learned and then revisit these and build upon them constantly.⁶² Further, Constructivist Learning Theory considers the learning

⁶⁰ For a general discussion of methods of assessment and those retained for the proposed model of tertiary level French as a Foreign Language in South Africa, see Part Three, 6.iii: 229-240.

⁶¹ This notion also underpins the use in the teaching of *FLE* of authentic documents (in contrast to fabricated material in line with the learners’ current level of skills mastery). Moreover, it may prompt educators to undertake careful consideration of the role of the language teacher (see Part Three, 3.ii: 154-155).

⁶² This aligns with my belief that “any given segment of language contains implicitly the rest of the language” and thus, that “teaching must, at all times, be the teaching of the whole language” (Part Three, 3.ii: 159 See also pages 156-157 in this regard, where I have referred to a progressive approach, which Constructivist Theory would term ‘scaffolding’. Indeed, according to

experience to be a shared enterprise, with curriculum necessarily reflecting educators' own belief systems as well as learners' life experience, emotions and goals. It favours a learning-teaching strategy which provides learners with an opportunity to discover and construct meaning collaboratively and progressively; learners are respected as unique individuals and instructors are facilitators not dispensers of knowledge⁶³.

Whilst it is true that certain cognitive scientists maintain that the central claims of Constructivism are not only misleading but also contradict known findings (Liu & Matthews, 2005: 386-99) and although some educators are questioning the Constructivist approach towards instructional design, especially when applied to novice instruction (Mayer, 2004: 14-19; Kirschner et al., 2006: 75-86), the use made of this learning theory by specialist pedagogues and didacticians (a use which I would qualify as retrospective) cannot be underestimated in its import. Indeed, the popularity of Constructivism as a philosophy of learning is undisputed. However (undoubtedly like any theory of learning), its application may give rise to teaching techniques which are not necessarily effective for all learners. Mayer's contention that it requires novice learners to be behaviourally active when they should rather be cognitively active (2004: 14-9) is, in all likelihood, well-founded; the criticism levelled at this method by Kirschner et al. (2006: 75-86) that it leads to unguided instruction may well hold water⁶⁴. However, after careful consideration, as is the case with any theory of learning, pedagogues and course designers must select only those elements of the instructional application of the theory that they find to be in accordance with learner profiles, goals, and institutional imperatives. Observation over time of learner behaviour from a broad age-range leads me to conclude, like Hmelo-Silver et al. (2007: 99-107), that the terms "guided" and "unguided" when

Constructivism, this 'scaffolding' must afford clear guidance and parameters within which to achieve the learning objectives but, at the same time, remain sufficiently supple to allow learners to construct meaning based on **their own** conceptual understandings (my emphasis). With this kind of learning experience, learners are empowered to discover, enjoy, interact and reach their own socially-verified version of the truth. (It is in this arena that the role of didactic material takes on particular significance; see in this regard Part Three, 3.iii:). Indeed, the more structured the learning environment, the harder it is for this to occur, which may explain the failure of methodologies based on Structuralist Theory, such as the A-O Method, discussed in Part One, Chapter Two: 37-40.

⁶³ Cf. Part Three, 3.ii:156-157, 162-163.

⁶⁴ Although the notion of unguided instruction may appear more applicable to Maturationism, (which holds that the child must guide himself without adult intervention in a permissive environment), it refers to the Constructivist or Cognitive-developmental theory of learning, which, as we have seen above, advocates that the learner's active construction of knowledge be facilitated and promoted by adults. De Vries et al. (2002) is useful in this regard.

applied to instruction, can create a false dichotomy; in fact, it is possible to have a continuum of structured guidance which varies in intensity and nature within problem-based, inquiry-based, and experiential learning. Further, several decades of practical experience have left me convinced of the efficacy of scaffolding as part of the learning-teaching strategy, and, in more recent years, of the increased learner confidence and autonomy that accrue when learners are guided towards being simultaneously behaviourally and cognitively active by means of ‘learning-through-doing’. Indeed, given the reality of the cognitive load of novice learners, time and other practical institutional constraints weighing upon tertiary-level *FLE*, it is logical to concur with Mayer that “discovery-based practice is not as effective as guided discovery” (2004: 18). This is further supported by Jonassen’s recommendation of “well-structured” learning environments which incorporate problem-solving scaffolding (1997: 65-94), thereby reinforcing his earlier suggestion that learning should move progressively towards experience, from initial, introductory knowledge acquisition, through advanced knowledge acquisition to expertise by means of practice and feedback, via apprenticeship and coaching to experience (Jonassen et al. 1993: 231-47). Of course, what is exciting here is that educational reformers, fired up by what Mayer terms “the fuzzy and unproductive world of educational ideology” (2004: 18) have had recourse to Constructivism in an attempt to motivate for certain educational reforms and innovative practices, and have, in turn, spurred on psychologists to undertake theory-based research on how people learn. What renders this even more exciting is that, alongside this new awareness of expansive learning within activity systems, of the learning-value of interactive space and peer-assistance, and the acknowledgement of different learning speeds, there have been major technological advances – healthy conditions, indeed, for cross-fertilisation and the birth of E-learning.

Indeed, distance technologies have opened up new potential in higher education; initially, benefit was perceived as accruing to distance-learners who need no longer to work in isolation but who can now “join an electronic community of learners” (Macdonald & Twining 2002: 603). However, the potential of these technologies for students other than distance-learners must be acknowledged. As we have seen, technological developments have provided a new context for Constructivism, whereby “importance is placed on understanding, rather than on

memorising and reproducing facts, on experiences in the learning environment, and on the contribution of social interaction and collaboration to problem solving (...) [and] the objective is to encourage self-directed learning and metacognitive development” (2002: 603-4). The closely-related pedagogies accommodated by Constructivism to which I have referred (designated by Macdonald & Twining as ‘collaborative learning’, ‘resource-based learning’, and ‘problem-based learning’ (2002: 604), are served by acknowledging the optimal potential of networked environments. Indeed, in the twenty-first century, we are able to witness the great promise inherent in networked environments, in that these can afford support mechanisms for (among others) those engaged in the foreign-language teaching-learning enterprise through collaborative interaction and access to information-rich resources⁶⁵. Whilst new technologies may not be readily available to all institutions of higher learning in South Africa and financial constraints may, further, impede their acquisition, it is counterproductive to ignore the concepts which they embody: namely, the notion of interactivity extended to learner and educator relationships, open-mindedness over resources, and encouragement of progressive learner autonomy. These are concepts which add value to the teaching-learning enterprise and are developments of which we, as teachers of *FLE*, should be mindful in our attempts to respond to learner needs. In Part Three, I suggest ways in which recent advances in learning theories, including constructivist concepts of task-based collaborative learning through peer and teacher/learner interactivity, learner autonomy and choice of resources, can be incorporated into tertiary-level *FLE*.

⁶⁵ <http://csalt.lancs.ac.uk/esrc/manifesto.pdf> is informative on networked environments.

Part Three

And ever shall be?

*Le temps viendra où vous croirez que tout est fini.
C'est alors que tout commencera.
Louis L'Amour*

University of Cape Town

A proposed model for teaching French as a foreign language in South African tertiary institutions**Introduction**

After having analysed critically the status and nature of French as it is taught on the campuses of South African universities, and having found such teaching wanting in the light of developments in didactics and pedagogy of foreign languages, it is now my aim to suggest how that teaching could be improved by proposing a model for the teaching of French as a foreign language at tertiary level in South Africa. This model is the concrete form of a set of principles which have been identified during Parts One and Two of the thesis; it incorporates aspects of ideology, organisation, pedagogy and curriculum.

The Learning Context**i. A Formal Learning Environment**

Unhappily for teachers of language, and as demonstrated in Parts One and Two of this thesis, there is no unified theory of language or of foreign-language learning. To say that language is a universal human phenomenon and that human beings speak whereas animals do not, is true but unhelpful for the foreign language pedagogue. Indeed, it confuses two distinct processes: mother-tongue acquisition and the learning of a foreign language. Yet, the two processes are not so different as to be completely divorced from one another. Were that the case, it would be impossible to learn a language other than one's mother tongue. We know, particularly in South Africa where multilingualism is a reality, that this is far from being the case. If we are to teach French successfully at South African universities in the twenty-first century, it is important that, from the outset, we place the challenge of how to do that within the general educational context, since that is an area over which educators have some control. The educational process is in itself not easy to define. Indeed, it differs from country to country, from culture to culture, from region to region, and from institution to institution. Indeed, it may differ within a single institution and there may be as many disparate definitions of the learning and teaching of foreign languages as there are contexts. Consequently, if I am to propose a model for the

teaching of French at South African universities, I need to begin by examining the precise context of that situation.

Firstly, there are three contexts in which foreign languages are learned: by natural cultural immersion, cultural immersion, and in a formal learning situation. By natural cultural immersion I understand the child who is born in, or transplanted to, an environment of dual or multiple cultures. The child develops naturally in both (or more) cultures and grows up speaking the languages of those cultures with equal ease. By cultural immersion I understand the adult who already possesses mother tongue (he may also have acquired an/other language/s) and who is transplanted into an environment in which the culture and language differ from his own. Cultural immersion does not always follow as a result of physical transplantation. Age, intent, and motivation in the individual are important factors affecting language acquisition. It is entirely possible to live as an adult for a considerable period of time in a foreign country and never learn the language of that country. That being said, it is rare for adult cultural immersion not to be accompanied by some degree of recognised language-learning, whether by self-study or in a formal learning context, since such learners have already acquired the mother tongue, their situation resembles more that of the formal learning situation. At this juncture, it is useful to recall that the child is learning **speech** (*langage*) more than he is learning **language** (*langue*). I allude here to the difference between signs and symbols. Derrida states: “Le symbole se distingue du signe (arbitraire) par l’existence d’un rapport ou d’une continuité mimétique ou analogique avec le symbolisé.” Referring to Hegel and Saussure, he continues: “Le symbole n’est pas purement arbitraire comme un signe. Il a toujours une certaine dimension indicielle (...) les symboles sont représentation et expression, contraints par le contenu de ce qu’ils représentent, contrairement aux signes qui sont libres” (1972: 97). Whereas the child growing up in a Francophone environment will naturally call “*livre*” what Anglophone speakers would term a “book”, for the adult Anglophone learner **the word in French for** book is “*livre*”. Moreover, whilst the child may well appear to learn a second or third language effortlessly, that is perhaps an adult perception. I would maintain that a child learns those languages better because he learns them as speech. I have mentioned cultural immersion in order to make clear an important distinction that is helpful to language teachers of adult learners: namely, that foreign-language teaching cannot, by definition, be treated as a

‘formalised’ version of cultural immersion. The university foreign-language teacher who conducts his classes as though the learners are in a situation of cultural immersion is neglecting the situational context of the learning process and is, then, in danger of jeopardising successful learning. For the purpose of this study, it is important firstly to understand that students of French at South African universities are learning the language as an academic subject in the context of a formalised learning situation and not in a country in which French is spoken. In this regard, the names by which courses on offer to students who wish to study French are designated, are revealing; indeed, when words are selected to name concrete realities and abstract notions, there is intentionality behind that choice. In the context of this study, that signifies that when staff members of university French Departments or Sections opt for titles to accompany course codes, their choice is not arbitrary. Rather, it is safe to assume that there has been reflection and discussion of course names. Further, one must logically conclude that those that are retained for Faculty handbooks and university websites are deemed to encapsulate in an abbreviated form the essence of courses, which will be explained in slightly greater detail in descriptive texts beneath course names. It is noteworthy that, with the exception of the University of Cape Town, no South African university makes mention in its undergraduate Faculty handbook or on its website of courses in French as a Foreign Language. The discipline is designated variously as “French Language and Literature” or “Communicative French: an introduction”; “The Huguenots. French missionaries”; “Advanced language study” and so on (cf. Part Two, 76-116). Three universities do, however, refer in course descriptions to French being a foreign language. Nevertheless, one cannot infer that, in general terms, methodology and course content have been designed expressly for learners of French as a foreign language. Even so, in South Africa, French **is** a foreign language. There may well be sizeable Francophone populations that have settled in the country – citizens from the Democratic Republic of the Congo or Congo Brazzaville, for instance, have fled from political persecution to South Africa – but relatively few of these enrol at universities¹. Some students enrolled at South African universities come from the nearby Indian Ocean island of Mauritius, where there is a strong French presence and the medium of instruction at secondary schools is English and/or French. In 2007, for

¹ At the University of Cape Town, none enrolled for French at undergraduate level in 2007; in 2006, 1 out of a total of 44 third-year students came from the DRC.

example, five of the forty-four students registered for third-year French courses at the University of Cape Town were either from Mauritius (4), or came from a home where French was the preferred language (1)². Nevertheless, for the overwhelming majority of students, French does not hold native, first or primary language status. Furthermore, all South African universities now offer students with no previous knowledge of French the possibility of picking up that language by enrolling for first-year initial or beginners' language courses in French. For such students, the language is obviously 'foreign'. At the University of Cape Town, those who have been exposed to the language at secondary school level and who have passed the Senior Certificate Matriculation examination (or equivalent) with a C symbol or higher, enrol directly for the second-year course (see footnote 5). For these students too, French is clearly not a first language. There is a further complication. Whereas at secondary school level, pupils have been taught within the strict parameters of methodology and course content as prescribed by the Matriculation Examinations Board in a way that befits the non-native status of the language, which is designated as "French 2nd additional language" (<http://php.ieb.co.za>), we have observed in Part Two that such structures are manifestly less frequently applied at university level. When learners graduate from secondary school to university, they encounter a different type of French, and the change is manifest in the subtle omission of the words 'foreign language'. That exclusion is vital. In fact, it signifies that learners no longer study French as a Foreign Language but French. In this way, there is an initial indication in the course name itself that the conception of methodology and course content is not tailor-made for non-mother-tongue learners of French. Moreover, rarely does the designation of courses allow prospective students to draw conclusions on level, aims, or content. Although the general entry for French in the Handbook of the Faculty of Humanities of the University of Cape Town, identifies the discipline as "French as a Foreign Language", the nomenclature of individual courses remains somewhat imprecise: "French Language and Literature" (be that IIA, IIB, IIIA, or IIIB), or "French Additional". Admittedly, there is some indication of content in the use of the words 'language' and 'literature', but no clear message regarding the nature of the language (mother tongue? foreign language?), level (intermediate? advanced?), or course aims (for communication? for reading?) which, by naming

² This represents 8.8% of the total class enrolment, identical to the figure for 2006.

clearly the orientation of the language, might guide the student in his enrolment. Whereas it is logical to suppose that I, II, and III correspond to ‘elementary’, ‘intermediate’, and ‘advanced’, or that course aims are best clarified in an explanatory text after the course name, omission in individual course names of any reference to the nature of the language taught is misleading for potential students, parents, and curriculum advisers. I would suggest, therefore, that in order to clarify the nature of the discipline taught, the words “as a foreign language” be appended to the mention of “French” in university course titles.

ii. Influences on foreign-language study at national and institutional levels: ideology and constraints

Wer fremde Sprachen nicht kennt, weiß nichts von seiner eigenen
Goethe

Since French is taught on South African university campuses, it is imperative that we understand the various ideological and institutional factors which influence foreign-language study as an academic subject. A valid university foreign-language programme must find its justification within a general educational enterprise. If foreign languages do not in some measure meet this criterion, then they will inevitably fail. This basic assumption will have important consequences. It is the essential ground for questions of substance and methodology alike. At government and institutional levels in South Africa, there is broad consensus on the importance of learning national languages other than one’s mother tongue and respect for that enterprise³. Language policies within institutions reflect this consensus and promote an active awareness of the desirability, and existence in the country, of national multilingualism. On the other hand, for political, economic and ideological reasons, South Africa has moved from an inward-looking model of self-sufficiency to embrace a vision of the country’s place both within the African continent and beyond. This has linguistic ramifications which are not, however, necessarily reflected in national or institutional policies. Indeed, since the adoption in 2003 of the National Language Policy Framework and the decision to prioritise the teaching and use of national languages, the teaching of non-national languages has declined

³ Indeed, during the week 15th to 19th October 2007, the South African Department of Education announced in a press communiqué its intention that Senior Certificate Matriculation examination question papers should be available from 2008 onwards in all of the national languages.

and fewer learners have the opportunity of studying foreign languages at school level. Consequently, elementary foreign-language study has become increasingly the responsibility of institutions of higher learning. Universities must, then, provide elementary foreign-language courses for these learners, the numbers of which could well increase as the youth of South Africa become increasingly aware of their multilingual environment and the value of language proficiency.

Indeed, as we have seen in Part Two, all South African universities offer beginners' courses in French. However, it should be stated that this could be viewed as anomalous. Institutions of higher learning have a natural commitment to research and pure scholarship; this normally presupposes the knowledge of fundamental subjects. Whilst it is true that various university disciplines (Economics, Politics and Social Anthropology, for instance) are not available as school subjects, they are more content- than skills-based and learning occurs in the students' first or second language. As the opportunity for students to learn non-national languages at school declines, universities must increasingly take on the responsibility for **elementary** language courses. That the pace of work for foreign language courses at university should be set, rightly or wrongly, faster than at secondary school level may be construed as partial compensation for this anomaly. Indeed, at South African universities first-year elementary language courses in French traditionally cover all the basic grammatical structures⁴. Is this excessive or appropriate? The answer to that question will be a function of the contact hours allotted to an elementary course. At the University of Cape Town, the time allocation specified in the Faculty Handbook amounts to five contact periods of 45 minutes per week plus a weekly conversation class and language laboratory self-study session, over twenty-five weeks, or about one hundred and thirty hours over two semesters, whereas textbooks for French as a Foreign Language published over the last five years (cf. References) recommend at least 200 hours to cover the grammatical structures listed in footnote 4. Furthermore, the problem of insufficient time allocation can be compounded by the imperfect semesterised system of the academic year. At the University of Cape Town, for example, the long winter holidays (increased from 3 to 6 weeks with effect from

⁴ Definite and indefinite articles; nouns; subject, direct and indirect object pronouns; adjectives; adverbs; nearly all verb tenses of the indicative mode for regular and irregular verbs – present, future, immediate future, recent past, compound past, past historic, imperfect, pluperfect, present conditional, past conditional; gerundive; present tense of the subjunctive mode for regular and irregular verbs.

2006) create a break, which is particularly prejudicial for skills-based courses, including foreign languages. Secondly, although the academic year is divided into two semesters, there is no true semesterisation in that, because of staffing implications, courses on offer in first semester are not repeated in second semester. It would be helpful if weaker students of intensive foreign-language courses could repeat the first semester in the same academic year of initial enrolment before proceeding to the next level and so reinforce their language skills. Given institutional constraints, that is unlikely to happen. I would argue that current timetabling practices mean that the grammatical course content of elementary courses offered at the University of Cape Town is probably too high. However, it is not necessarily advisable for any one section of French to challenge unilaterally what has become a tradition in foreign-language learning. I would venture to say (and admit readily that the comment is supported only by personal conversations held with colleagues from my and other universities) that the generalised lack of knowledge of what constitutes successful language-learning translates into suggestions of reduced course content being equated with a drop in standards: 'less but better' is unlikely to emerge victorious over 'more but less well', as even at university level quantity can become confused with quality. On a less speculative note, problems of articulation with the majority of other tertiary institutions would be created that could seriously penalise students.

The reality is that elementary French teaching is a feature of South African undergraduate programmes. There is a further complication in that, in addition to complete beginners, there are still incoming first-year students who have been exposed to the French language at secondary school level. The challenge lies in where to place those learners. Since they have at least three years of secondary school French, it would be unadvisable for them to follow an elementary undergraduate course. Rarely do French Sections of South African universities have the staff complement to offer them a specific course, and most fast-track them into the second year, intermediate level along with continuing students from the elementary-level course⁵. This in itself is not without pedagogical difficulties

⁵ Four South African universities offer both an initial course in French for complete beginners and a first-year course for students enrolling with secondary school French (Johannesburg, Pretoria, Rhodes and Stellenbosch; cf. Part Two). The consequence is that beginners must study French for four years

because of disparate skills levels in learners. Further, possession of a pass at the Matriculation examination is an imperfect indication of skills acquisition and secondly, exposure to the language has quite naturally been very different from the former intensive elementary language course students⁶. Clearly, then, the model and methodology that will be proposed in this thesis must facilitate the harmonious teaching of French by university teachers to students in the same class who possess varying linguistic competences; a focus on skills acquisition will be required if linguistic parity is to be achieved.

In Part Two, the importance afforded by French Sections of South African universities to the analysis of literary texts was noted as being common to the majority of the institutions reviewed. It appears that, since it is felt implicitly that university students should be exposed as quickly as possible to mature subject matter, there may be unseemly haste in introducing them to the reading of difficult literary texts. Course content may then be determined largely by the teacher's own intellectual interests or his view of what constitutes 'great literature' rather than by the pedagogical needs of the student. Furthermore, if one considers that good teaching is normally less highly respected and less well rewarded than published research, then one can readily understand why senior university staff may delegate elementary foreign-language teaching to non-permanent, contractual teaching assistants, although I am hesitant to evoke any notion of traditional elitism or academic careerism. University professional life impacts on the tension between pedagogical and intellectual imperatives too. Justifiable insistence on mature subject matter at university level is the result of the intellectual commitment of the institution to pure knowledge and research. It can be difficult for senior academic staff members to enter fully into the practical classroom situation at the elementary language teaching. They may even be unaware of replacing concrete language by a corpus of intellectual invention, whereby pedagogical and intellectual considerations can become confused. Indeed, the university lecturer can often be justly criticised for teaching **about** language rather than language itself. He is not often satisfied with the elementary point of view and in his attempt to introduce students to mature subject

in order to graduate with the subject as a major. Academically and pedagogically, this is undoubtedly sound; however, articulation with the majority of South African universities is rendered problematic.

⁶ In 2007, 7.8% of the second-year enrolments for French at the University of Cape Town were former elementary-language students; the figures for 2006 and the first semester of 2008 stand at 12.2% and 8.6% respectively.

matter, may urge them forward before they have been properly grounded. The specialist in literature or linguistics with proven competence in literary or linguistic research, may not be competent in the complex domain of foreign-language methodology. Happily, there is a growing consensus at the University of Cape Town that pedagogical issues related to foreign-language learning are a respectable and legitimate field of enquiry and that they merit the attention of trained, competent researchers⁷. How this competence is to be gained, unless by trial and error with staff engaging in research on their own experimental pedagogical activities, is unclear.

The involvement of senior academic staff in elementary language teaching, the promotion of research related to foreign-language learning and time devoted to mentoring junior teaching assistants must be seen as a guarantee of quality language instruction and a greater chance of more students continuing their study of the language to advanced and postgraduate levels⁸.

⁷ Cf. Final Report: Academic Review of the School of Languages and Literatures (University of Cape Town), 23rd October 2006: 35.

⁸ Happily, since 2003, the University of Cape Town considers mentoring under the criterion Leadership when evaluating academic staff. This is a positive move, which must continue and expand.

Chapter 1 – A Language Model

To be an effective foreign-language teacher, one should reflect on the nature of language. Language is a subjective as well as an objective phenomenon. It is a mode of being or, to paraphrase Husserl (1982), language has the objectivity of those objectivities of the world we know as spiritual or cultural and not the objectivity of simple physical nature. In other words, language is first of all a phenomenon of the human mind and not of physical nature. Its subjectivity has, then, an objective component in ‘culture’, which is the proper domain of humanistic study. Language is a symbolic structure of human reality; objective and historical, it exists in the world with the subjective experience of language as we know and speak it, existing potentially within the historical, normative language, yet having norms of its own and both an ideal and a real existence. This is the educative and enlightening force of language. Crucial, I venture to say in South Africa, is that by means of language we penetrate into realities other than our own, where we come to know what we can of total human universality⁹.

Peut-être n’ouvre-t-on un livre que pour enfin commencer à entendre.
Christian Robin

At university level, it is appropriate that the four language skills prioritised by foreign language pedagogues since the advent of the Communicative Method be developed (oral comprehension and expression, written comprehension and expression). Further, whereas I support the move of compilers of recent *FLE* textbooks to place those skills within a framework not only of linguistic but also of socio-cultural knowledge (as seen in Part One), with the latter informing communication, I consider that insufficient. To the four objectives listed above¹⁰, I add a fifth (which is implicit in much *FLE* material) borrowed from the core competences specified by the *Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR)*, that of social interaction, to which I refer under the sub-heading ‘Nature of Language’ within the gambit of socio-cultural competence. I draw attention to social

⁹ I return to this when dealing with notions of Culture (page 144) and the teaching of literature (pages 216-223).

¹⁰ These four competences replicate the first four of seven skills recommended in 2006 at the University of Cape Town following DAC and Undergraduate Education committee meetings, as being “the kind of academic skills which departments in Humanities consider important to include in their courses (especially, but not only, at 1st year level.” Furthermore, “[t]he Humanities Students Council representatives on UEC have asked that departments take these into account when designing their courses” (Undergraduate Academic Skills, Nigel Worden, 30th May 2006).

interaction as an objective because university teachers of French frequently place insufficient emphasis on the learner's ability to translate an awareness of language style into appropriate discourse. I would also add a caveat: that the development of language skills must happen in accordance with learner needs, interests, aspirations and learning strategies; to quote Boyer & Rivera, it is important to "respecter chaque apprenant et le 'style d'apprentissage' qui est en lui et pour cela adopter des itinéraires souples et différenciés" (1990: 171). Such an approach will determine which of the five skills will be prioritised for any particular academic activity. An elementary course in Business French will, for example, require that the learner master the technique of commercial letter writing. That pedagogical activity will, quite naturally, train the skill of written expression.

1.i Concepts of Language

The concept of language that I propose is that of a pedagogue, not that of a socio-linguist or a philosopher. Thus, language is a practical, immediate, concrete and cultural experience. In this way, dignity can be conferred on the concrete language that many intellectuals scorn, whilst retaining the notion that language, insofar as it embraces the whole person and all of culture, is an instrument for broadening and cultivating the human mind. As an inherent part of the human condition, language is a source both of identity and power. To paraphrase Sartre (1943), attributing the concept to Heidegger, we are what we say. Merleau-Ponty saw language as "arme, action, insulte, ou séduction". We read: "Beaucoup plus qu'un moyen, le langage est quelque chose comme un être" (1960: 54) and "La parole est un geste et sa signification un monde" (1976: 214). Thus language is more than an intellectual process or a system of signs; it is 'une façon d'être', 'un état d'âme', a structuring of human reality, opening on to the logic of thought and the world. It is indissociable from emotional and personal reality, but it is also a structure and an inherent system of logic (Part One: 70-71) with its own autonomy and generative power, which in its functionality is useful to the language teacher. The foreign-language teacher of university students is in the presence of the reality of his learners' reflexive consciousness (cf. 144 and 196). By this I mean that students will first perceive a new linguistic element (in the form of *langage*) by spontaneous consciousness that they will then process (as *langue*) in the reflexive consciousness

mode. In this way, they encounter the new language as an external phenomenon, which they first internalise prior to re-externalising it. These insights are helpful. They signify that university language teachers must time their teaching **about** linguistic elements to coincide with learners' reflexive consciousness mode, but that those elements must first have been perceived spontaneously so that they can later be reused. The teaching-learning strategy will be successful if teachers remember that their students do not learn by digesting intellectually: they learn through generating language. Moreover, they will learn much more effectively if they are helped to rely more on the spontaneous consciousness of their childhood¹¹. By definition, humans are creatures who live in social groups. Language is a tool that they use to communicate amongst each other. Therefore, arguably, language must be seen as an instrument of communication and of social interaction. Consequently, this aspect of the reality of language should not be overlooked in the academic context and should be reflected in teaching-learning strategies¹².

Nature of language

Communication in a language is made up of various competencies – strategic, sociolinguistic and grammatical. That order is not arbitrary but is, rather, indicative of an implicit hierarchy. In other words, the learning of French as a foreign language must enable learners to know how to communicate in that language, by means of a discourse that is appropriate to a given situation (which can be qualified using *CEFR* terminology as 'social interaction') and which employs the grammatical structures

¹¹ This notion is behind the first of the seven pedagogical steps (cf. page 192) and of the initial pedagogical activities of any lesson plan (see, for example, page 198 and Annexures Intermediate and Advanced Level Literature), one aim of which is to encourage the learner to interact spontaneously with the language.

¹² Indeed, one may safely suppose that when students elect to study a language, one of their motivations is the desire to communicate in that language. This assumption is borne out by a recent study undertaken at the University of Cape Town: all 42 first-year students canvassed on 9 reasons why they had chosen to study French, indicated "Communication with French speakers" as their main motivation (Brydon, 2008: 16). The language teacher will, then, respect learner motivation when designing the course. Students who choose a foreign-language course in order to acquire a reading knowledge are in the minority; they are invariably postgraduate students from other disciplines, requiring reading knowledge for research purposes. Even then, the isolated instance of the engineering student or medical researcher, who wants to read scientific texts written in a foreign language, can be viewed as a form of communication since the conduit that will facilitate his access to a body of knowledge is that foreign language. Of course, such a learner would want to limit largely his language study to the development of reading comprehension skills in the language. This is a very specific need; it does not apply to the majority of students and must be handled individually by prioritising the reading comprehension skill over the four others.

that form the fabric of that language. In saying that, I am not invoking particular theoretical constructs but relying rather on years of empirical observation of learner motivation and progress. That being said, no single communicative skill of those listed above is more central to successful learner communication than any other. The main aim of the teacher of *FLE* must, therefore, be to facilitate for the learner integration of the communicative skills. By strategic skill, I do not mean communication strategies as Canale and Swain conceived of them: verbal and non-verbal strategies that are employed to “compensate for break-downs in communication caused by variables in performance level or partial skill” (1980: 30). Although strategic competency may include those elements, it is considerably more nuanced. It is the ability of the speaker to convert his intentionality into a comprehensible message using the linguistic and non-verbal tools at his disposal. Thus, strategic competency should be conflated, not with the negative connotation of compensation but positively, with astute verbal and non-verbal management of a situation of communication. By socio-cultural competency, I understand two sets of rules: those that govern socio-cultural interaction and those that underpin discourse. Knowledge of these rules is central to the correct interpretation of the social signification of speech utterances, particularly when the interface between the literal meaning of the utterance and the intention of the speaker is opaque. Socio-cultural rules dictate how the utterances are produced and understood appropriately, in accordance with Hymes’s perspective on communication, Austin’s concept of language function and Searle’s illocutionary acts, to which I have referred in Part One (pages 65-67). The rules that govern discourse are to be conceived of both in terms of cohesion, that is to say grammatical links between parts of speech, and coherence, that is an appropriate combination of communicative functions. Grammatical competency includes knowledge of lexical elements and rules governing morphology, syntax, the semantic grammar of the sentence, and phonology.

1.ii Concepts of Society and Culture

*Far from being unitary or monolithic or autonomous things,
cultures actually assume more **foreign** elements, alterities,
differences, than they consciously exclude*
Edward Said

In South African universities, French Sections or Departments are housed within Humanities or Human Sciences Faculties, thus often involving disciplines that do not traditionally belong to the studies of humanities. During a period of scientific hegemony, humanities studies lost ground and often sought to defend themselves by borrowing attitudes and terminology from the sciences, sometimes to their own detriment. Since 1994, the South African educational context has been changing. On a practical level and reacting to political considerations, institutions of higher learning are aware of the need to play a role nationally, regionally, and on the continent as a whole. The educational enterprise is both increasingly less introspective and infused with concepts of nation-building and forging identity¹³. In this regard, Faculties of Humanities and Human Sciences can be considered as having a unique role to play in the educational process, a role that is, in part, linked to notions of cultural identity. Questions of culture cannot be reduced purely and simply to information; culture is a structuring of human reality that includes an assertion of human value. Culture, like its medium language, is concrete and ideal, objective and subjective, historical and personal. Teaching of foreign languages can draw out certain mental faculties and instil certain mental habits, while imparting to the learner fundamental skills that will enable him to understand, speak, and write in the foreign language, thus empowering him to cultivate his mind through the interchange of ideas that is inherent in spoken and written communication. In this context, I understand by mental faculties, a linguistic structuring of the consciousness and consequent heightened awareness that facilitate fuller cultural participation. Consciousness (*conscience*) is not the same thing as knowledge (*connaissance*), in that to know an object is to be reflexively conscious of it, whereas to be conscious of that object, is to perceive it spontaneously. In pedagogical terms, then, learning must first be an inductive rather than a deductive process; all knowledge is a matter of experience as experience is determined and ordered by the individual human mind.

¹³ See pages 147-148.

These insights are the foundation for a learner-centred teaching strategy and for the progression of the seven pedagogical steps (59) that I will recommend for language, literature and special purposes teaching¹⁴.

Returning to the term ‘culture’, it may be used in two very different senses, both equally valid, but both having a different application for the teaching of foreign languages at undergraduate level. Anthropologically, human culture can be considered to be all human activities at all times in history. It can, thus, include notions of human physiology, human psychology, the study of human societies, their origins, institutions, religious beliefs, and social relationships, whether past or present. “Anthropology”, writes Kottak, “is the scientific and humanistic study of the human species. It is the academic field”, he pursues, “that most systematically explores biological and cultural diversity in time and space. (...) Anthropology compares ways of life, and the people who lived them, from radically different times and places” (1997: 1). It studies, he continues, “the whole of the human condition: past, present, and future; biology, society, language, and culture. Of particular interest is the diversity that comes through human adaptability” (1997: 5). Kottak’s definition rightly associates language with culture. Indeed, there is general consensus that language and culture are interdependent and indissociable. *FLE* textbook compilers are correct to include as supports for reading comprehension a diversity of contemporary authentic texts that reflect the “diversity that comes through human adaptability”, to which Kottak refers. So it is that Le Bougnec et al. incorporate, for example, an article that appeared on the website of the *Chiennes de garde*, a women’s group fighting in France against the sexist accusation that successful women ‘sleep their way to the top’ (Le Bougnec et al., 2002: 118). At the same time, in anthropology there is another definition of culture: culture as creativity. In this view, culture was what we were doing when we first painted symbols on the walls of caves. This definition sees culture as creative rather than customary, liberating rather than coercive; it is interpretative, semiotic and humanistic (Geertz, 1973: 3-32). The humanistic view seeks to generalise, but not at the expense of the unique. Unamuno

¹⁴ The seven pedagogical steps, which can be associated with *Didactique des Langues-Cultures (DL-C)*, are also in line with the South African Department of Education’s emphasis on ‘outcomes-based’ learning. In Boyer et al, we read that the term *DL-C* was borrowed from Galisson’s *Eloge de la didactologie / didactique des langues et des cultures*; the distinction is drawn between ‘la didactologie’, which is the theoretical and methodological foundation, and ‘la didactique’, or practice; these are “ (...) unies au sein d’une même discipline à part entière” (1990: 7).

is frequently quoted in this regard: "There is nothing more universal than the individual for what becomes of one becomes of all. Every man is worth more than all Humanity" (1972: 51). We are humans not because of what we share, but because of how we differ, and "...what most unites us as human beings are our discords" (1974: 7). This humanistic concept of culture tends to view culture as a process of enlightenment of the individual mind, whereas the anthropological stance perceives all human activity as a body of knowledge. These viewpoints have implications for the foreign-language teacher.

To the extent that university foreign-language teachers are engaged in a pedagogical enterprise, they will find much relevance in the humanistic viewpoint. Their students are engaged in an arduous undertaking: the creation in themselves of the mental constructs of a new language. This is a very different process from that of absorbing cultural information. The natural primacy of spoken over written language is the linguist's or anthropologist's statement of fact; it asserts that there have never been instances of natural languages which were written before they were spoken. The statement is undoubtedly true, but is of no value for the teacher of language. The cultural primacy of the spoken language over the written language is a statement of fact; it is also a statement of value. It derives authority from educators and society alike. The cultural and intellectual primacy of the written language over the spoken one is also both a statement of fact and one of value. It derives its authority from the traditional academic world and from the intellectual world in general, which place great store by the reading of books. In turn, the South African intellectual world derives its authority from South African society that creates and supports institutions of higher learning. It is clear, then, that issues of pedagogy may become obfuscated when entangled with notions such as these. University foreign-language teachers must be aware that the cultural primacy of the spoken language will encounter the rival cultural and intellectual primacy of the written word. They must reflect upon whether, and how, apparently conflicting primacies can, in fact, co-exist. Further, the cultural and intellectual primacy of the written word may present its own internal tension, which is evident in textbooks for *FLE*, even in those of recent publication. Le Bougnec et al., for example, pit a poem by Victor Hugo against an excerpt from the women's magazine *Elle*, in which Yves Saint Laurent reassures female readers that, although "the most beautiful clothes in which to dress a woman are the arms of

the man she loves, for those who have not found that happiness, [Saint Laurent is] there” (2002: 80-81). In Johnson & Menand, excerpts from Daninos and Montesquieu face the illustration of part of a page torn from a notepad. It reads as follows: “Taxi: (...) Politeness of drivers useless > useless. Saturday evening > difficult to get a taxi. Underground: not expensive. Convenient but dirty” (2004: 101). Trivia seem to be promoted to the status of universal culture, and humanistic elitism to have been replaced by scientific relativism. The valid insight that all human reflection produces culture is obscuring the fact that **levels** of culture **do** exist. Comprehending what Roger Caillois has termed “*la révolution sociologique*”, used to such great effect by both Montesquieu and Voltaire, is very different from understanding comments on public transport in Paris. My intention is not to suggest that comprehension of remarks on Paris taxis and the *métro* has no place. The learner of French as a foreign language **must** be able to understand such comments, and possess the linguistic structures, lexical items and appropriate language register to be able to make such remarks himself. However, the positioning of short excerpts from literary texts alongside texts of the most banal language usage, could be perilous: it implies a dangerously erroneous equivalence and may lead learners to misconstrue the true nature of the written word. While enabling learners access to as wide a variety of authentic documents as possible, university teachers of *FLE* must, nevertheless, through questions on author intentionality and illocutionary force, ensure that learners can discriminate between such texts.

In short, as a pragmatist, I turn to both phenomenological philosophy and behavioural sciences for a notion of culture. This makes it possible to assert that levels of culture are matters of objective fact whilst still permitting the validity of the statement “everything is culture”. As implied earlier, the positive interpretation of this latter statement resides in its liberating force: culture can be perceived as a constantly expanding human consciousness. The negative interpretation of the statement would indicate that nothing is more important than anything else; however, this can be countered by my assertion that levels of culture do, in fact, exist. Were that not the case, then there would be no need for schools or institutions of higher learning, no place at all for modern-language teaching. On the contrary, great achievements of human cultural endeavour grace past centuries, survive into the present and are expanded by fresh accomplishments. Further, educators within the

education system in South Africa must be aware that the country is forging new cultural identities¹⁵. Students in tertiary establishments are likely to bring to their work a partial awareness of this process, which formulates itself as their own questioning of the society in which they live and its interrelatedness with the wider world. They are ready to find in foreign-language courses an open door to awareness and intellect, which more insular aspects of their curriculum may not make available to them. Other peoples and their ways of life are more intelligible than during the inward-looking years of the country's past. This intelligibility is, however, more than folkloric; indeed, it is rooted in a worldview and constitutes an area in which institutions of learning can find their rationale for modern-foreign-language courses. I shall return to the implications of this in Chapter 3, when examining the role of didactic material.

¹⁵ See pages 154 and 161 in this regard. Of course, as Kanpol (citing, amongst others, Cherryholmes, Wexler, Giroux, McLaren, McLaren & Hammer, Lather, Shapiro) has indicated, there is an "emerging body of literature on postmodernism and education [which] has heavily impacted the theoretical constructs within which education and social theory are associated" (1995: 267). This corpus has viewed how "the constructions of race, class, and gender disparities exhibit signs of oppression and hope: oppression when these incongruities exacerbate forms of subordination and alienation, and hope when new constructions and cultural resistances possibly create new social relations which are not subordinating or alienating" (ibid: 177). I would maintain that a cross-cultural approach, as detailed on pages 221-225 with Pedagogical Activities in Annexures 1 and 2, and the Teacher/Learner relationship advocated on pages 156-157, 226-227 may assist in creating relations which are neither "subordinating" nor "alienating".

Chapter 2 – A Language-Learning Model

*Apprends ce qui te semble difficile:
tout ce qui est difficile devient facile grâce à l'apprentissage
Persian proverb*

2.i Concepts of Language-Learning

Language-learning must, first and foremost, be anchored in the indissociability of form and meaning: as seen in Part One, learning through mechanical drills hampers true language acquisition. Linguistic competence is best acquired when it develops in tandem with communicative competence, and grammatical structures are more easily assimilated when learning starts with meaning. In other words, it is the *vouloir dire* of learners that determines how they express themselves, the ‘what’ governs the ‘how’. Exercises that call for the student to say, or write, something that has no resonance in his own life will not prove as successful a learning strategy as an activity which takes his own experience as its starting point. Jonassen & Reeves state: “Ideally, tasks (...) for the application of cognitive tools should be situated in realistic contexts with results that are personally meaningful for learners” (1996: 693). My empirical observation since 2002 suggests that when learners respond according to personal experience or give their own opinion¹⁶, they perceive the usefulness of French in that it is not divorced from reality. I have noted that they listen with curiosity to the varying input of their peers and attest to the relevance and pleasure afforded by the learning experience. I have observed that students more readily come to understand that grammatical correctness is an essential communicative tool in that it guarantees the accuracy of the message. In this way, learners learn **how** to learn by incorporating into their learning strategy their powers of reflexion and ability to reason. With this pedagogical model, language-learning can be defined as the acquisition of competences (*savoir-faire*) and the possession of the knowledge (*savoirs*) and cultural know-how (*savoir-être*) required for attainment of those competences.

¹⁶ See, for example, RE A2, pages 31-32, and Step 1 Animation of Pedagogical Activities in Annexures 1 and 2.

2.ii Role of the learner

At the University of Cape Town, there is no language requirement for students reading for a BA degree¹⁷. There is a language requirement for students of Law, who can choose from among the broad suite of languages on offer: Afrikaans, Arabic, French, German, Hebrew, Italian, Portuguese, Sotho and Xhosa. Students in the Commerce, Engineering, and Science Faculties may register for a language course as an elective, providing that their timetables accommodate the course. Although a logical case can be made for a language requirement for some disciplines (for example, Arabic, French, or Portuguese for Politics and International Relations), the disadvantage with any language requirement is that it can lead to lack of interest in the learner. Indeed, information on student numbers provided by the University of KwaZulu-Natal in response to the questionnaire in Annexure 19 appears to confirm this assumption, as the percentage of students dropping French after the expiry of the obligatory one semester's study of a foreign language stands at 60% for 2005, 50% for 2006, and 63.64% for 2006¹⁸. Conversely, the student who **selects** a particular course of study can be assumed to be, at least at the outset, motivated and committed to his own success. It may be useful, here, to emphasise the advantage of not having language courses as requirements since the degree of motivation, of even the elementary-level student who **has chosen** to study French, will thus be greater.

Learners must offer their minds in a very different way from that required for other disciplines. The general enquiring attitude, which should pervade all educational enterprise, is clothed in a special form in the foreign-language class. Questions of 'How?' and 'Why?' are superseded by 'What?' The learner will instinctively want to know 'What is the word for ...?' His curiosity must be satisfied, but at the same time, he must accept that enquiries cannot be limitless, that (particularly at the elementary-level), information need only be basic, since his primary goal must be practice of the language. Here, it is often the teacher who is at fault, overcomplicating the situation by proffering complex explanations when simple ones would do just as well. Often without realising it, learners intuit that the word calls for the reality which it is intellectually thought to signify. If the language

¹⁷ In Part Two (78) consideration is given to the policy of language requirements at South African institutions of higher learning.

¹⁸ However, there is a similar non-continuation rate at the University of Cape Town, where there is no language requirement, indicating perhaps that students enrol for subjects on a 'try-out' basis.

comes to them with its new charge of meaning, they will accept it. It is only if the teacher has somehow obscured that charge of meaning (by inadequate preparation or ill-conceived pedagogical supports, or no supports at all) or if the learner's concentration lapses, that the learner will be resistant. It is my experience that, given the opportunity, learners are ready and willing to be actively involved. Vigorous participation is the real answer to the problematical question of learner motivation and interest. It would, of course, be naïve to suggest that it is possible to direct a student's attention onto a subject in which he is resolutely determined to take no interest. However, university undergraduates are interested in a great many things and will generally make these known to the language teacher who, if able to separate pedagogical from intellectual imperatives, will take the trouble to enquire. At the same time, students will be correspondingly more receptive to sophisticated rather than naïve arguments concerning what is required of them. In a language course, the learner's interest is immediate and participatory. This is a question of simple logic: he has chosen a modern-foreign language course because he wants to communicate in that language (Brydon, 2008: 16) and, providing he is given that opportunity, he will make every effort to communicate. Later (at late-intermediate and advanced levels of study), when his language proficiency is greater, his interest may be more abstract and intellectual¹⁹. Yet even then, the student's primary and most gratifying experience with the foreign language must be the ability to use it, to sense its nature, and establish contact with its reality. Learners must be empowered via appropriate language teaching to know the deep satisfaction that all human beings experience in successful verbal expression. It is quite right that they should be interested only insofar in their own powers of participation and expression are being effectively increased. The communicative empowerment to which I have just alluded is not a gift but a process. From the very outset, the student must understand that in a formal learning situation the process of language acquisition is tripartite and is based on a three-way partnership of learner/teacher/subject matter²⁰. No one element of the partnership has greater weight than the other two. Thanks to the language teacher's skilful interaction with the subject matter, learning becomes "an active process in

¹⁹ Here it should be remembered that language, as a verbal construct of human reality, never ceases to be a tool for communication; the university language teacher must be sure to capitalise on the immediacy and participatory nature of learner interest, even when the learner reaches a more advanced level of language proficiency.

²⁰ This notion is more fully explained in 3.ii under "Role of the language teacher".

which meaning is accomplished on the basis of experience” (Sólrún, 2001) with the learner’s role one of active participation as he makes the language increasingly his own by becoming progressively more autonomous. The learner of *FLE* must be viewed as a stakeholder in the learning-teaching process: he is an actor and not a passive recipient of knowledge²¹.

²¹ Tertiary foreign-language teachers should be instrumental in embracing an inclusive pedagogy, which would, to use Gardner’s expression, “recognise that education is fundamentally a social process”, in which students are “**active** agents in learning, not passive recipients of teaching” (2001: 69). My emphasis.

Chapter 3 – A Language Teaching Model

Oui apprendre, mais comment?
Philippe Merrieu

3.i Concepts of language teaching

An important element in the thinking of the foreign-language teacher must be that human beings are part of their own situation. They do not only submit to their environment; they create that environment. Nowhere more than in the foreign-language class is the active presence of all more crucial. At all levels, but at the elementary level in particular, it is essential that the experience of the learner should originate in the classroom. All other aspects of the work are secondary to the direct contact that the student has with the language thanks to the activities that the teacher selects so as to expose him to that language. Textbooks, sessions in the language laboratory or multi-media resource centre and assignments cannot replace the regular tripartite contact of teacher, learner, and subject matter. This is not to deny the crucial importance of the textbook, the language laboratory, multi-media resource centre or assignments. On the contrary, these are essential learning tools and, right from the outset, the teacher must encourage progressive autonomy in learners. However, particularly at the elementary level, self-study tasks must derive from direct experience in the classroom. (At more advanced levels of study, when the learner is capable of greater autonomous linguistic reflexion, a major task will sometimes be the independent reading of a prescribed or recommended text). The classroom itself is a kind of laboratory. It has the immunities and the privileges essential to the special creation of knowledge. The foreign-language teacher, who brings his mind to bear on this, will be able to measure the extent of his responsibility. The classroom should not have the atmosphere of a control post. It should be a haven, but not the kind of otherworldly sanctuary of the past – and still sometimes is – where knowledge is the province of the initiated alone and the university lecturer, high-priest-like, officiates. The modern-foreign-language classroom must be a sanctuary where the acquisition of skills is nurtured and knowledge itself is embraced. Of course, this still implies the notion of haven and privilege but, importantly, incorporates a relationship with the outside world. It is a laboratory, which is a testing-ground for a cultural reality. That reality is not confined within the walls of the classroom but has a purpose: that of teaching students for some further function. That function may include all the advantages of

human communication, reflection on cultural identities, reading, travel, enlightenment of the mind, broadened career horizons, increased intellectual power, and personal satisfaction, which come from learning another language. The students will make their own choice from among these advantages. The ensuing result is a direction and dynamism, which are brought to the language classroom. Whereas it would not be practical or financially viable to follow Lozanov's suggestion of dimmed lights, armchairs and background music (cf. Part One: 53), it is perfectly feasible (at least in a classroom situation if not in a lecture theatre) to create a more relaxed atmosphere by placing tables and chairs in clusters or a horseshoe shape. Unfortunately, the way in which timetabling is organised and venues are generally distributed on South African university campuses means that both teachers and learners move around. University foreign-language lecturers must continue to request designated language-learning spaces, so that posters and charts can decorate walls, print resources can be on hand, and screens, interactive smart boards²², PCs, and speaker systems can accommodate the regular use of DVDs, audio CDs, CDRoms and French television. However, whether such facilities are available or not, the university teacher of FLE should adopt the pedagogical model which fosters skills and knowledge acquisition and facilitates learning by maximising active language-practice opportunities for the learner within a socially-relaxed atmosphere, linking the classroom to the outside world through an astute selection of pedagogical activities and material, and encouraging learner autonomy.

3.ii Role of the language teacher

Together We Can

Advocating designated, equipped language-learning spaces does not signify that the teacher is not the primary source. By this I mean that it is the teacher who, with all the resources of his teaching art, is instrumental in bringing the new

²² The interactive smart board is a vital and revolutionary pedagogical tool for extending the notion of communication. Levy rightly urges teachers to view computer-aided language-learning (CALL) as an aid and not as a threat of redundancy (1997: 178, 180-1, 184). Indeed, a well-rounded approach to learning-teaching strategies will maximise varied pedagogical supports and activities, by dovetailing with the three phases of CALL as identified by Warschauer (1996: 3-20): behaviouristic, with the computer as tutor, providing material; communicative, with the computer providing the right answer and stimulating discussion (Levy, 1997: 197); and integrative, with the Internet building on multi-media and thus enabling asynchronous and synchronous communication (Warschauer, 1996: 5). See pages 187, 234-236.

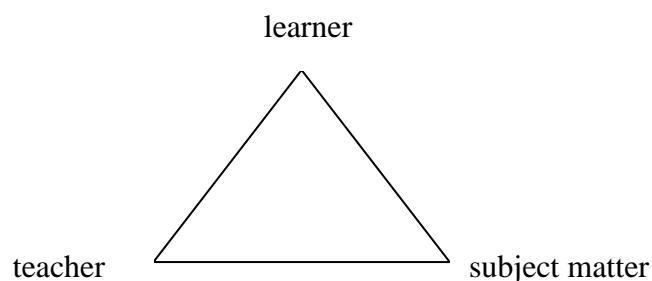
language gradually and progressively into existence. In this endeavour, he will be aided by language theory to understand how language exists. Yet it is pedagogy that will enable him to make that language exist for his learners. Since a new language can be made to exist only by a long and complex task of construction, the university teacher of *FLE* will call the new language into being in the classroom by presenting material progressively²³. His own dynamism and the adroit use of pedagogical supports (image, sound, the printed word) will aid him greatly in the task of calling a new language out of nothingness and making it exist in his students' minds. In the teaching situation, the university teacher of French will quickly discover that he has a choice of administering knowledge and creating it. That is, that all magisterial or *ex cathedra* approaches to the teaching challenge assume that duly constituted knowledge already exists and has only to be dispensed. The problem with such approaches, even at advanced levels, is that they ignore the fact that knowledge must be constantly recreated in order to exist. For the language teacher, the point of departure must be the individual student's mind and **not** the body of knowledge. This does not mean that teachers must avoid teaching the subject. Rather language teachers must not view the language as a body of knowledge to be taught but as a mind process, which will call a body of knowledge into existence. It may be useful to clarify that by 'body of knowledge' I refer not to a disembodied corpus of linguistic structures or literary texts, but rather to the student's ability to manoeuvre within the language in which those structures and texts are to be found. This body of knowledge has pedagogical and intellectual power; it has cultural substance; it is the fruit of individual and collective human endeavour over the centuries of its creation and, in the language classroom, it is recreated, this time as the result of the individual and collective efforts of teacher and learners alike. Importantly, it is the student's mind and its subjectivity that must be the teacher's initial focus, not the body of knowledge itself. In this way, subjective experience will result in objective knowledge.

The key to the success of this enterprise is the learner/teacher/subject relationship. Here I am indebted to Dr Arlette Alziary for first drawing my attention²⁴ to the valuable work carried out in France by Chevallard on the didactics

²³ See 4.iii Presentation of course content, p 186.

²⁴ Dr Alziary, a consultant and *FLE*-teacher trainer attached to CIEP, ran a training workshop for teachers of *FLE* hosted in 2003 by the *Alliance française* of Cape Town. Rézeau, 2006 situates the origin of the didactic triangle with Houssaye, 1988.

of mathematics (1985). It is the visual representation in the form of an isosceles triangle of the relationship between three poles: the learner, the teacher, and the subject matter. This simple depiction of a three-way connection makes for immediate understanding of the inter-relatedness between learner, teacher and subject matter²⁵.



Further, it illustrates parity between the three poles; it is not a top-down approach, (as is the case with the magisterial or *ex cathedra* approach to language-learning). Whereas with Houssaye's didactic triangle (1988a), the teaching process is positioned along the teacher-subject matter axis, by contrast Germain's adaptation for language didactics (1989) of Legendre's SOMA model²⁶ (1988) places the teaching process along the learner-teacher axis (Rézeau, 2006). Unlike Chevallard (1985), Houssaye (1988a), Legendre (1988) and Germain (1989), I have omitted the didactic, learning and teaching relationships from the visual depiction of the teaching-learning process above, but have presented a more nuanced version in flowchart 2 (page 245). Here, the omission is to highlight the direct and reciprocal relationship between learner, subject matter and teacher, with the latter acting as facilitator, or mediator. In the context of my proposed model for tertiary-level *FLE*, the notion of the teacher as facilitator-mediator falls within a less rigidly-structured pedagogical intervention than that established by Vygotsky (1962) in his research into mediation as a decisive factor in the cognitive development of the child.

²⁵ With the advent of new technologies which provide both a wealth of on-line resources and new opportunities for teaching-learning strategies, the didactic triangle can be modified to reflect the integration of the instrument of mediation and mediatisation (Rézeau's term for "la transposition didactique"). In this way, the learner's access to the subject matter is mediated through instrumentation (the use of technologies), and the subject matter is linked to the instruments of teaching and learning via mediatisation (Rézeau, 2006). Rézeau depicts this, not as a didactic triangle but as a square. Since South African Departments of French have limited access to technologies (cf. Part Two), I have not explored the notion of the didactic square in this thesis.

²⁶ The SOMA model of the pedagogical situation is one large circle representing the learning milieu, within which are three smaller circles depicting the subject (the second-language learner), the object (language and culture), and the agent (personnel, process, means). A relationship of apprenticeship links the subject and the object, one of didactics links the object and the agent, and one of teaching links the agent and the subject (Germain 1989, in Rézeau 2006).

Vygotsky's notion of mediation was extended by Bruner (Raynal & Rieunier, 1997) to incorporate tutoring and scaffolding, which Bruner defined thus: "[Scaffolding] refers to the steps taken to reduce the degrees of freedom in carrying out some task so that the child can concentrate on the difficult skill she is in the process of acquiring" (Bruner cited by Mercer, 1995: 73). Of course, the notions of mediation and scaffolding as described above may appear irreconcilable. With mediation, the teacher as intermediary **between** the learner and the subject matter can act as a dam and not a conduit, if the pedagogy is purely content-based. With scaffolding, although the teacher no longer positions himself between the subject matter and the learner but is **beside** the learner so as to support him, the comfort of this temporary support may be such that the learner cannot, or does not want to, do without that support. For university-level *FLE*, I am proposing a less rigidly-structured notion of mediation than Vygotsky's in viewing mediation as access-facilitation, as in Raynal & Rieunier's definition: "Ensemble des aides ou des supports qu'une personne peut offrir à une autre personne en vue de lui rendre plus accessible un savoir quelconque. (...) Le langage, l'affectivité, les produits culturels, les relations ou les normes sociales sont des médiations" (1997: 220). In fact, in this way, teacher, tutor, classmate, and the learner himself can all have a role of mediator. I combine this broad notion of mediation with Mercer's definition of scaffolding: "the provision of guidance and support which is **increased** or **withdrawn** in response to the developing competence of the learner" (1995: 75)²⁷. It is within this context of flexible, variable scaffolding coupled with access provision that the teacher is mediator and facilitator. Moreover, this aligns with Boyer & Rivera's recommendation (citing Porquier) of limiting "le rôle de l'enseignant à celui d'un observateur et d'un facilitateur d'apprentissage, servant de témoin (et non de juge) pour la correction formelle et l'intelligibilité des énoncés et pour la conceptualisation" (1990: 40) and further reinforces the notion of "la transposition didactique"²⁸, by means of which Chatel (1999) indicates the difference between *le savoir savant* and *le savoir enseigné*. The foreign-language teacher can frequently fall into the trap of monopolising the 'talking space'. He must be mindful of the fact that he has already acquired mastery of the language; it is his learners who must be empowered. Indeed, according to Dalgalian et al. (1983: 143), "une langue ne

²⁷ My emphasis.

²⁸ See footnote 25.

s'apprend jamais par elle-même et (...) sa maîtrise est fonction de son caractère opératoire et **de l'étendue de son champ d'utilisation**"²⁹ (idem). Therefore, I would recommend that during each contact period the teacher occupy no more than 20% of the 'talking space' and that he allot the remaining 80% to his learners (cf. Part Two: 125). Moreover, in his rejection of a hierarchical relationship and training of learner autonomy – or "responsabilisation", to use Boyer & Rivera's term (1990: 40), the teacher is correctly placing the learner at the centre of the teaching-learning experience; thus, it is indeed the student's mind and its subjectivity that are the focus of the teaching experience, which will, in turn, lead on to the acquisition of skills and knowledge.

A further key to successful language teaching is the control of context. Particularly at elementary and intermediate levels, the student will be exposed to a corpus of material that will involve all the basic structures of the language introduced through activities and interpreted by listening, reading, pronunciation, intonation, diction, grammar, culture and civilisation. Teachers must prepare thoroughly the scope and range of the material that they will teach. This preparation will produce a contextual whole, which will contain the subject matter that the teacher will make available to the students. It is then the teacher's duty to lead the learners into that experience and to help create that experience in the students' minds. It is important that learners accept from the outset that they are not required to understand everything. Teachers must create a learning-environment of confidence and self-affirmation, thanks to which learners will more readily face the unknown and accept that they can navigate their way through previously uncharted waters by means of landmarks that will guide them to their destination of overall comprehension. Further, they will be more inclined to take risks when attempting to communicate, confident in the knowledge that they need not fear ridicule or censure. It will be helpful to create opportunities for reflexion on the language itself. Here traditional grammar will find its natural justification. To the extent that grammar explains language, it becomes a useful tool for creating more language. Furthermore, grammar constitutes a valuable body of knowledge, (along with many other bodies of knowledge): for the student of language it is important to know, for example, what a part of speech is, to understand the subject-verb-object relationship, verb tenses,

²⁹ My emphasis.

modes, and so on. However, should the teacher of *FLE* not ensure that grammatical knowledge results in the **active** skills of understanding, speaking, interacting socially, reading and writing, then that knowledge will remain inert and its teaching unjustifiable. It is the teacher's role to guarantee that ultimate objectives are contained implicitly in immediate objectives. In real terms, this signifies an inductive approach towards the teaching of grammatical structures, whereby learners first encounter the new structure within an audio-visual or written document, surrounded by lexical and grammatical items with which they are familiar (*pré-acquis*), and are encouraged to perceive patterns and attribute meaning. Should the language teacher not proceed in this way but present the grammatical structure to be learned out of context, knowledge will remain descriptive and static (as with the Grammar-Translation Method, cf. Parts One and Two). With an eye on ultimate goals, however, the teacher will treat grammatical concepts as entities to be understood, recognised, assimilated and used in speech. If this ultimate objective is not contained within the immediate objective, then the ultimate goal will never be attained. Since any given segment of language contains implicitly the rest of the language, teaching must, at all times, be the teaching of the whole language. Indeed, it would appear that many problems arise at university level over the confusion of implicit and explicit objectives. I know of a case where the writings of Victor Hugo and an excerpt from the Old Testament Genesis have been used as recently as September 2007 to teach the *futur simple* tense to elementary-level students on the assumption that any university course must have serious intellectual content. Intellectually, this cannot be refuted. However, on pedagogical grounds, the justification of such practice must be countered. Students need to have acquired a high level of language proficiency to be able to read Hugo and the Bible. This is not to say that literary texts have no place within the university elementary-level French course³⁰; on the contrary, literature can provide extremely rich pedagogical material (cf. the role of didactic material, page 160 onwards). However, students can be discouraged and frustrated if they are required to read difficult texts before they possess the linguistic skills required for such reading. The university language-teacher must resolve this dilemma of

³⁰ Staying with the example of the *futur simple*, it would be appropriate to introduce the verb tense by means of a contemporary, authentic document, such as a video-clip of the song "Tant qu'il y aura des femmes" by Dany Brillant, and to have included excerpts from Hugo and the Bible as self-study exercises under the heading *Pour aller plus loin* as a final activity for students to deepen their exposure to the new verb tense.

substance and competence by understanding that higher levels of cultural content are **implicit** in elementary language courses.

The teacher is, then, source and facilitator. As such, he is also a creator and innovator. Textbooks are useful guidance tools but they must be complemented by the teacher's imagination, his willingness to risk using new sources of learning materials, his enthusiasm and dynamism, qualities that characterise any meaningful human enterprise. The French language, Francophone cultures and literatures may acquire their own autonomous meaning within the student's mind; the time needed for that to happen will vary with each learner. In the meantime, the teacher must act as conduit and facilitator. He will identify the specific objectives to be attained during each contact period, which he will prepare accordingly, and will source among the wealth of pedagogical supports the most appropriate for attaining the lesson goals, interpreting these according to his own style. However, as we have already seen, he must remember his role within the didactic relationship and so be prepared to depart from the pre-determined lesson-plan should the need arise.

3.iii Role of didactic material

Clearly the role of didactic material must be to enable course objectives to be attained. This enterprise will be achieved with greater success if didactic material is up-to-date, varied, thought-provoking and in accordance with learner interests, guaranteeing thereby a more dynamic learning environment and better-motivated students.³¹ Here, it is important to raise the question of weighing objectives. If the problem is to be placed in a proper pedagogical perspective, the two functions of understanding and speaking a foreign language must be conceived simultaneously. There is no real understanding of a foreign language without some speaking, and no real speaking without understanding. It is only in a general linguistic context of theories concerning the origin of language and writing that there is any meaning to the question of a **natural** priority of understanding over speaking. For foreign-

³¹ Naturally, for courses in *Français sur objectifs spécifiques* (FOS – French for Special Purposes), didactic material will be skills-specific and of less general applicability. The didactic material (contained, for example, in *Le français des affaires* by Le Ninan, 1993, *Français.com* by Penfornis, 2002 and 2003; or *Objectif Express*, Tauzin & Dubois, 2006), is very carefully articulated around specific business skills. However, it would be possible to use the video-cassette *Vivez les affaires* (Guédon, 2002) in a more general context by formulating different tasks around the video images.

language teachers the problem is strictly pedagogical and it is in this context, which is far from natural, that we must grasp the relationship of understanding and speaking. The teacher speaks, the learner understands and responds. For the learner, language in the early stages is a question of listening³²/understanding-speaking. The teacher must know that initially speech will originate with him; the student will respond. As indicated on page 142 and 143, the statement that language is spoken before it is written may have intellectual validity but pedagogically it is hollow. The university student is neither a child nor a primitive being discovering speech for the first time. That language as a human phenomenon is spoken before it is written is no reason why the student should learn to say “*Bonjour! Je m’appelle Jo*” before he writes it. It is perhaps natural for people to speak before they write, but certainly not in a foreign language where, at first, nothing is natural. There is, however, a pedagogical reason, which resides in a cultural not a linguistic imperative. In a general cultural consensus that places value on language study, the teacher of *FLE* must find ways (methodologies) for bringing unnaturally – that is in the classroom situation – the experience of other natural languages to our students. A teacher who adopts the view that French is spoken naturally by Francophone people before it is written by them, will try to bring this experience to his students through regular use of audio- and video-cassettes, CDs, DVDs, and CDRoms, on which there are voices of native speakers. Moreover, as foreign-language teachers, we subscribe culturally to speaking foreign languages; professional experience has shown that if we want our students to speak, we must begin by interacting with them in the target language. With regard to the core competences of reading and writing, we must remember that universities, as institutions committed to higher education, engage in teaching and research, and that students attend universities to read books and learn from them. Indeed, the great difference between the educated and the uneducated is one of literacy and it is from this perspective that the overall cultural objective of university study must not be overlooked. Universities are major instruments of higher literacy in society; their task is to bring students to higher levels of consciousness, awareness and knowledge. For the educator this implies an intellectual primacy in the educational system of the written word over the spoken. Thus, the university foreign-language teacher must face the necessity (and difficulty, principally at first- and

³² Petit advocates prioritising oral work, contending that the human brain ‘hears’ words orally prior to transposing them into scriptural form, as is the case with reading (2000: 23).

second-year levels) of dispensing a literate education to his students. This cannot be done on purely pedagogical terms unless the educator understands something of the nature of culture and how this relates to foreign-language courses. It is here that the study of literary texts finds its true place.

Lire, c'est toujours lier
Roland Barthes

We have seen that the successful teaching strategy is one that is centred on learner needs. Clearly these do not exist in a void but rather within a spatio-temporal context (cf. footnote 43, page 168). Further, I suggest that the Humanities in general, and literature in particular, are closely linked to value systems. Indeed, any educator who refuses to commit to this ideological aspect of Humanities teaching should acknowledge that such a refusal is, in itself, a kind of commitment. “Aucun enseignement”, writes Abdallah-Pretceille, “n’est neutre et indépendant de tout enracinement philosophique voire idéologique” (in Porcher, 1986: 75). In the South African context, it is questionable whether teacher-training has kept pace with the societal changes since 1994. Indeed, Alexander, drawing upon Vail’s definition of ethnicity as not being “a natural cultural residue but a consciously crafted ideological creation” (1991: 7), a notion which Jackson & Solís (1995: 212) state “now has the sense of conventional wisdom”, and in reference to core culture and core curriculum in South Africa, that “the redesigning of teacher education on the basis of radically new approaches to multi-cultural pedagogy is crucial to the success of any large-scale and long-term projects of social transformation” (in Jackson & Solís, 1995: 210).

Therefore, when designing course content for university students of *FLE*, it is entirely appropriate that didactic material should incorporate elements which take into account the learners’ richly diverse cultural backgrounds, contribute to strengthening social stability, and acknowledge the creation of learner identity. “Cultural identity”, writes Hall, “is a matter of ‘becoming’ as well as of ‘being’. It belongs to the future as much as to the past. (...) Cultural identities come from somewhere, have histories. But, like everything which is historical, they undergo constant transformation” (1990: 225). The co-presence of diverse ethnicities and cultures within the same space is not restricted to recent history; however, it characterises contemporary societies by its rapid evolution and widening scope and it

is entirely appropriate that foreign-language teaching should reflect this phenomenon. It is useful here to note Abdallah-Preitcelle's definition of interculturality as a construction that fosters the understanding of social and educational problems connected with cultural diversity as opposed to the notion of multiculturalism which, according to that author, has no express educational target (1992, 36-7). In this way, De Carlo positions interculturality as a pragmatic choice in the face of the multiculturalism that characterises contemporary societies (1998, 39), and as an approach arising from the need to construct modalities of negotiation and mediation of shared spaces. Indeed, such an approach is a possible avenue of response to the challenges of new socio-cultural orders. It is in this context that, in addition to written material used conventionally for language teaching (such as text books, newspaper and magazine articles), literary texts – “le lieu emblématique de l'interculturel”, to use the expression coined by Abdallah-Preitcelle & Porcher (1996: 162-3) - are ideal material. Since the impassioned exchanges of specialist pedagogues at the 1968 Cerisy conference, there has been much debate on the feasibility of teaching literature (Doubrovsky & Todorov, 1980: 43). It is in this context that the model that I am proposing makes a contribution. Indeed, with this model, the view of the place of literature within a South African undergraduate course in French is based on imperatives **other than** those that are customarily adopted to determine the role of Humanities studies (cf. pages 165 and Part Two).

La littérature, c'est la question moins la réponse
Roland Barthes

Firstly, when one reads literature, one interacts emotionally with the text. More than any other activity, that of reading and writing demands a personal investment; this is totally in keeping with learner-centred education, which is both at the heart of the didactic triangle (page 156) and of the South African Department of Education's policy of Outcomes Based Education³³. The self is paramount; books are

³³ In the light of the extended debate on curriculum and OBE in South Africa, which can be traced back to Jansen's paper 'Why OBE will fail' (1997), this requires some elucidation. Primary criticism of the national curriculum and OBE came from academics who analysed the conservative ideological and philosophical assumptions “bathed in popular education discourse” (Jansen, 1997: 12). In addition, critics of the National Qualifications Framework of which the curriculum framework was a part, saw “the dominant model of educational development in South Africa post-1994 as inspired by neo-liberal educational approaches which paid more homage to the needs of the economy uncritically conceived than to social justice” (Chisholm, 2003: 9). However, defenders and critics of Curriculum 2005 united to present a “report arguing that outcomes-based education was not the issue but the design of the curriculum and aspects associated with its implementation” (2003: 10). Nevertheless, it is important to note that the Report of the Review Committee “struck a blow in attacking the

the arena of self-discovery³⁴. It was Barthes who postulated that the first form of pleasure comes from self-projection, and self-recognition within the text³⁵. According to Séoud (1997), even when a text disturbs the reader by introducing him to the unknown or making him call into question long-held behavioural patterns and beliefs, it still affords him pleasure because it engages him emotionally. It is, then, also very much in line with a learner-centred approach. Moreover, as Alter (in Doubrovsky & Todorov, 1971) has demonstrated, reading literature encourages the development of life skills by requiring the reader to make the same effort of comprehension to grapple with quandaries and predicaments as he would in real life, or, to use Bott's expression, "négocié avec ses fantômes", since students are "active learners who come to (...) lessons already holding ideas (...) which they use to make sense of everyday experiences" (Scott, 1987: 4 cited in Rüschhoff, 1991). Further, to paraphrase De Carlo (1998: 94), the use of narrative text (real and invented stories) as a pedagogical support within an intercultural perspective, has the virtue of guaranteeing unity within change: since the characters retain their physiognomy

constructivist theory of knowledge which underlay the curriculum" (*ibid*) and was, then, a radical critique of the official ideology of learner-centredness. Ensuing debate has focused on learner-centredness in theory and in practice. It has been argued that, whilst learner-centredness "may be a necessary tool to break down decades of learning habits formed to create uncritical and unthinking persons (...), it was undermined in large under-resourced classes with poorly qualified teachers who were unconfident of their subject knowledge" (*ibid*). In proposing a tertiary-level model for *FLE*, I am cognisant of the debate around learner-centredness, a central element to the model. I consider that the criticism levelled against its implementation by the Curriculum 2005 Review Committee with regard to "large under-resourced classes" and "poorly qualified teachers" who are not confident of the subject matter that they teach should not be not applicable to the tertiary-level context. I acknowledge, however, that at tertiary-level implementation of the model that I am proposing may have implications in terms of teacher training and learning support materials. With respect to materials, I have included in Part Three and Annexures practical suggestions of learner-centred pedagogical activities for use by teachers of *FLE* as well as details of useful websites and textbooks in the References. I suggest that tertiary-level teachers of French in South Africa are highly-qualified and sufficiently confident in their subject matter to teach it differently. Further, the challenge of formal teacher training in *FLE* is addressed by the new University of Cape Town BA Honours (with effect from 2008) and Masters degrees (with effect from 2009) in Teaching French as a Foreign Language, as well as by the distance in-service teacher training (PROFLE) which is due to be launched in 2009 by the *Service de Coopération et d'Action Culturelle en Afrique du Sud et au Lesotho*, an organ of the French Ministry of Foreign Affairs. Further, the model that I am proposing for the teaching of literature aligns with the conclusion reached by the 2005 Curriculum Review Committee in respecting "the need for a secular, liberal humanist, rights-based curriculum that recognises the diversity of South Africans" (Chisholm, 2003: 12). The review and revision of C2005 in light of recommendations made in 2000 by the Ministerial Review Committee have not changed the essential values entrenched in OBE and Curriculum 2005.

³⁴ The work *Lectures* by Françoise Sagan (1984) is illuminating in this regard, as the author charts her voyage of self-discovery according to the books that she reads.

³⁵ Séoud's (1997) astute and very accessible analysis of Roland Barthes' theory of "le plaisir du texte" is a helpful tool for understanding reader/discourse interactions.

despite the vicissitudes that they endure, they help the reader to perceive himself as a coherent subject while accepting change.

*La beauté d'une œuvre littéraire, n'est rien d'autre que la plénitude d'une
inépuisable richesse sémantique*
Serge Doubrovsky

Clearly, there is a dialogic richness³⁶ that derives from the polysemy of all literary texts. This is of particular value when learners' needs, skills (cf. pages 137-138) and cultural backgrounds³⁷ are disparate. Plurality of meaning signifies that there as many possible interpretations of any one text as there are readers; literature thereby acquires a **democratising** function and that alone is a valid enough reason for incorporating it into any Humanities *FLE* course in South Africa. Clearly, the course developer must ascertain **what** literature should be taught. Within any French department, the prescribed literary texts must obviously be written in French but what criteria should be employed when selecting literary works and how should these be incorporated into an undergraduate *FLE* programme? In Part Two, we noted that the majority of departments of French at South African universities accord significant importance to the teaching of literature, that iconic works are often preferred, with teaching being viewed from a purely literary perspective and text analysis and the literary dissertation being retained as modalities of teaching and assessing learner performance. However, I suggest that it is logical to apply the same selection criteria to a literary text as to any other authentic document, namely suitability to learner profile; the presence of non-verbal elements that may aid comprehension (an evocative title, for instance); evidence of the parameters of the situation of communication (for example who is writing and for whom); the potential exploitability of the document for pedagogical ends; the appropriateness of the document as a trigger for oral and written systematisation and production, as well as the communicative, linguistic and socio-cultural relevance of the document to learner progression. In the light of the socio-cultural imperative that I have identified as being key for successful teaching of *FLE* to culturally-heterogeneous learners, although it is a myth that "the mere exposure to other cultures will arrest prejudice

³⁶ See footnote 95, page 218.

³⁷ The teacher of *FLE* can dissipate any inter-peer or teacher/learner incomprehension (a potential source of tension in the learning-environment) arising from cultural heterogeneity by focusing on the polysemic aspect of the literary text. Annexure 17 indicates the broad range of nationalities of students registered at the University of Cape Town, 2003-2005; this implies a correspondingly broad range of cultural backgrounds.

development and decrease prejudicial attitudes” (Weil, 1998: 116), one of the most useful vehicles for increasing the ability “to analyse critically and to reflect on the common struggle for human dignity and the logic of oppression is a literature-based curriculum. Using **conflict-based literature**³⁸ as opposed to trivial stories is the key here” (1998: 207). Clearly, teachers of French at South African universities do not teach “trivial stories”, but nor do they target “conflict-based literature”. I suggest that the teaching of contemporary Moroccan women’s fiction affords certain particular advantages in this regard. It provides just one corpus of conflict-based literature in alignment with socio-cultural objectives and should not exclude others. Students in South Africa can only benefit from seeing that other societies – and this is indeed particularly true of Morocco – also evolve in pain, struggling to reconcile tradition and modernity and to empower certain previously and often still disadvantaged sectors of the population, specifically women. Moroccan women authors, such as Rachida Saqi, Fadéla Sebti, and Rachida Yacoubi, are incorporating into their fiction social issues which are all too familiar to those living in South Africa: abuse of power, illiteracy, the challenges of multilingualism, education of women, divorce and alimony, rural exodus, inadequate health facilities, poverty, unemployment, customary law, polygamy and prostitution. This again calls into play the ideological dimension of the role of the teacher of *FLE* who will act as facilitator so that the learner can come to know himself while discovering the Other, a process that De Carlo (1998: 8) describes as spiral which, moving out from the Self, is projected towards the Other, before returning to the modified Self. Furthermore, such a discovery can lead to the understanding that cultural diversity is not problematic but rather a tool for enriching and strengthening the social fabric³⁹. Teaching such literature can, then, be a means of encouraging actively social, ethnic and racial integration (Séoud, 1997: 60) in that “teaching for social justice means not just taking (...) knowledge frameworks and curricular materials seriously, but, just as

³⁸ My emphasis. See footnote 95 (218), which nuances my interpretation of “conflict-based”.

³⁹ Banks, observing that “It is easier to describe the challenges that diversity poses to citizenship and citizenship education than to conceptualize, develop, and implement creative ways to deal with these challenges and transform them into opportunities” (1997: 10), states that “Multicultural education is a continuing process. (...) One of its major goals is to create (...) democratic ideals (...), justice, equality and freedom” (*ibid*: 68). I contend that, by its very nature, a cross-cultural approach to the study of literature serves such goals. (See in this regard Annexures 1 and 2 for examples of intermediate and advanced level literature modules). I suggest the term ‘cross-cultural’ in preference to the conventionally-used word ‘intercultural’; the prefix ‘inter’ seems to signify entry ‘into’ the culture, whereas cross-cultural evokes better the notion of moving from one’s own culture, ‘crossing over’ to another culture and returning, altered in some way by that encounter.

importantly, taking seriously the ideas, thought processes, beliefs, and interests of one's own students"⁴⁰ (Sleeter, 1996: 196). This willingness to be open to others is further enhanced by the fact that, as Miled's analysis of examples of Tunisian literature written in French ably demonstrates (1985: 39), the writer who adopts a language, and so a culture, which is not his, nevertheless retains the narrative legacy of his mother tongue which nourishes his "source of creativity". At a purely linguistic level, then, Moroccan fictional narratives enable the learner of French in South Africa to discover and communicate with the Other and is, thus, of relevance and interest.

Clearly, senior academics in French Sections of South African universities are often expert scholars of a particular author or period of classical French literature and prefer to teach their own area of specialisation, basing their lecture courses on aspects of their research; they may, then, be reluctant to separate personal research interests and learner needs. Similarly, some may deem an undergraduate French course which does not include some works by the literary greats of the seventeenth, eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, to be unworthy of a self-respecting university. Indeed, traditionally French-teaching has in general subordinated civilisation to literature, the latter being considered as finding its most perfect expression in the language and literature of France (De Carlo, 1998: 25). The model that I am proposing for undergraduate-level *FLE* seeks to move beyond the exclusivity and limitations of this tradition. My purpose is not to suggest that the teaching of literature has no place within an undergraduate *FLE* programme; on the contrary, I have signalled its richness as a pedagogical support for learners from differing socio-cultural backgrounds and with disparate skills levels. The novelty of the proposed model lies in the way in which literature is best integrated into the *FLE* programme. That is to say that whatever the literary text prescribed for undergraduate study of *FLE*, it should constitute a **language support** among many others⁴¹, should promote the **five** skills that I have retained for a South African *FLE* model, and that (in the light of communicative and socio-cultural objectives) students must be afforded substantial exposure to **contemporary** literature.

⁴⁰ This approach is reflected in the pedagogical activities contained in Annexures 1 and 2.

⁴¹ Cf page 184. For suggestions on how to use a work of literature as a pedagogical support for a language-teaching strategy, see Pedagogical Activities in Annexures 1 and 2.

Traditionally Humanities Faculties have seen their mission as imparting knowledge; indeed, since Montaigne's day, literature has been the key to unlocking the mysteries of humankind. (In the South African context, the work of scholars like Higgins (2000, 2001, 2007) and Cloete (2002) is informative on the imparting-knowledge/democratising role of Humanities faculties as well as on notions of governance. Cf. 166). For those university teachers of *FLE* who are from literary backgrounds and lovers of literature, the socially-integrative power of a literary work (Bourgain, 1982: 16) viewed cross-culturally can be a rich source of pedagogical activities. After selecting "conflict-based" literary texts, incorporating a socio-cultural objective, and adopting a cross-cultural approach, my experience of reading what learners produce as a result of having interacted with a work of literature written by a contemporary Moroccan woman author, has been entirely positive⁴². The original text becomes their personal property; they give themselves to it, discover themselves within its pages and in turn, those pages give something back to them - an image of themselves, altered in some way and maybe more ready to accept themselves and to accept others⁴³.

⁴² Since 2003, when I began using contemporary Moroccan women's fiction as a pedagogical tool for language acquisition (with a cross-cultural approach), I have noticed improved linguistic competence in students' written productions in comparison with the linguistic level of the text analyses and literary dissertations of previous years.

⁴³ Further, I would contend that by adopting a cross-cultural approach, it is possible to counter Besse's criticism (1982: 27) that the study of literature weakens the ability of learners to situate language correctly in time and space; a cross-cultural approach (as apposed to textual analysis) requires that they position themselves within the text.

Chapter 4 – A Model for the Pedagogical Relationship

4.i Selection of course content

The curriculum, selection of suitable course content, will be a function of the course objectives. Here, it must be acknowledged that goals and objectives of undergraduate language work are rarely clearly defined at university level⁴⁴. The teacher who has decided which grammatical structures must be covered during the first, or second year of study for example, has not defined goals and objectives clearly. Instead, he has mistakenly hidden these under a reliance on grammatical structures, which then become the substance of the course. He must guard against this since when goals and objectives are unclear, methodology is likely to be permissive, eclectic and relativistic; textbooks tend to be changed frequently on a 'try-out' basis and photocopies are distributed without thought for cohesion or methodological and philosophical implications. I have stated earlier that it would be imprudent to reduce substance; the challenge, then, will be to identify a methodological framework that maximises language acquisition in the learner. In this regard, it is necessary to focus less on substance (the grammatical structures to which I have referred), but, more importantly, on skills. What should these skills be? How, furthermore, should they be ordered within an undergraduate *FLE* programme? I intend to demonstrate that it is entirely appropriate to be guided by the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR)*⁴⁵.

What could justify South African universities selecting course content for French undergraduate studies in accordance with the directives of a European model? Developed through a process of scientific research and wide consultation, the *CEFR* document provides a practical tool for setting clear standards to be attained at successive stages of learning and for evaluating outcomes in an internationally comparable manner. Importantly for the South African context, in the evolution from Threshold levels to Reference Level Descriptions that is embodied in the *CEFR*, we have an instrument for multilingual education, which South African university Faculties could consider for both national and non-national language-teaching. It

⁴⁴ Cf Part Two: 74-129.

⁴⁵ See Annexures no 5 and 6 for the genesis and a description of the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages*.

constitutes a wholly new approach aimed at redefining language-teaching objectives and methods in that it provides a common base for the design of programmes, diplomas, certificates and degrees and can, therefore, contribute to educational and professional mobility. Indeed, these same guidelines act as terms of reference for various examinations in French as a Foreign Language⁴⁶ available to interested candidates at examination centres (often *Alliances françaises*) in countries all over the world. Furthermore, each unit is self-contained and so allows students of a general Bachelor of Arts degree to acquire credit points for a restricted area of language study that nevertheless has its own academic coherence. Parallel to this internal coherence is a continuity built upon skills-based learning components that facilitates student progress from the elementary level through to advanced study. Indeed, unless elementary instruction can be related to the instructional programme as a whole, as it is with this model, there will be neither overview nor continuity. Elementary instruction must be sufficiently self-contained to meet the needs of those students to whom more advanced levels of study are not immediately accessible, while enabling access to those students who can, and wish to, pursue more advanced courses. With the *CEFR* model, aims and objectives are clearly defined in terms of core competences which transpose into tasks, thereby enabling the student both to select a course of study in a more informed way, and to monitor better his own progress. Further, the orchestration of linguistic competences around tasks makes for easier and fairer assessment, while the realistic expectations placed upon the learner at the elementary level importantly ground the latter and can, therefore, assist through-put. I suggest that, since course objectives are expressed in terms of skills, this model could assist in remedying the disparate linguistic skills levels of incoming students with Matriculation French referred to on pages 137-138. Further, having implemented the *CEFR* framework in 2007 and 2008 across second-year level and for some third-year modules, I have observed that the model enables learners to acquire a greater personal **active** command of the spoken and written language than

⁴⁶ I refer to the Diplôme élémentaire de langue française A1, A2, B1, B2; the Diplôme approfondie de langue française, C1, C2; examinations in Français des affaires 1er degré, 2e degré, Français du tourisme et de l'hôtellerie, Français juridique, organised annually by the Paris Chamber of Commerce & Industry, *La Chambre de Commerce et d'Industrie de Paris*. Adoption of the *CEFR* six-level scale would afford students the liberty of sitting such examinations, should they so wish, without incurring the expense of additional tuition. In September 2007, two students from the third-year Business French class at UCT were able to sit the C1 DALF and one the B2 DELF examinations, simply because the course objectives that I have retained for third-year undergraduate study correspond to the *CEFR*.

prior to adoption of the model for those courses. This is particularly noteworthy; whereas beginners' courses in French tend to require active learner involvement, if the traditional Grammar-Translation approach to language and the *ex cathedra* model for literature teaching are used in subsequent years of study (this we saw in Part Two is the case at most South African universities), then the student's **active** command of the language decreases. A task-based⁴⁷ approach, however, ensures **active** learner participation at **all** stages. In addition, I suggest that adoption of this task-based model, for which course objectives and outcomes are clearly stated for all levels, could assist in achieving smoother articulation between the various years of undergraduate study in French. Furthermore, the graded degree of difficulty from the elementary to the advanced, from the functional to the abstract, which this model affords⁴⁸, is consistent with the acquisition of language as a communicative tool; the clear progression in skills levels can, therefore, assist the learner to acquire increasing mastery of skills. Finally, the sophistication of the linguistic skills and the intellectually demanding nature of study at the exit level are entirely befitting of university study.

What would the drawbacks be to embracing *CEFR* principles for *FLE* at South African universities? At the outset, it is important not to confuse the structure of the *CEFR* framework with the context within which it is used. Secondly, it is current practice that the criteria for institutional audits run by the Higher Education Quality Committee refer to benchmarking of institutions internationally in that the qualifications framework is designed in line with international trends. Even so, sensitivity over language in South Africa could result in criticism of use of the *CEFR* framework on the grounds that it is Eurocentric. I would refute that censure. The classifications for language achievement advanced by the *CEFR* have international meaning: South Africa is a global player and trained teachers of *FLE* in other emerging-market countries (at *Alliances françaises* in Brazil, India or Mexico for example) understand readily what is meant by the *CEFR* six-level scale. More

⁴⁷ For those language teachers who find it difficult to transpose grammatical structures, with which they are familiar, into tasks, or speech acts, the Contents pages of *FLE* textbooks published in France over the last decade are an essential tool. In tabular form, they enumerate grammatical structures and carry information on the use of those structures in illocutionary acts (cf page 190).

⁴⁸ This model is also consistent with the view of Boyer et al., which I suggest correctly identifies the multifaceted nature of the teaching of French as a foreign language: “ (...) le FLE, tout autant qu'un objet d'enseignement ou une profession, est un enjeu à la fois culturel, politique, économique et (...) commercial, lié au destin de la francophonie” (1990: 7).

important than the concern that these labels may be tainted by their Eurocentric origins, is their usefulness. It is helpful for a South African graduate to be able to indicate to a future employer his level of language skill in terms that are recognisable internationally. In fact, by implementing the *CEFR* classification for language-learning, French departments of South African universities would achieve three things: they would be adopting clear aims and objectives and thus be realising the notion of quality control for foreign-language teaching; secondly, they would solve problems of articulation with other institutions of higher learning; and thirdly, they would be fostering healthy mobility, both the professional mobility⁴⁹ of their graduates and that of transferring and exchange students. Since having adopted the course objectives, outcomes and task-based model for intermediate French advocated by the *CEFR* at second-year level in 2007, I have been able to observe improved articulation between modules of the same course, increased learner participation, enhanced communicative competence, and learner function in a broader range of language registers than before. Therefore, I suggest that use of the *CEFR* structure would add value to the French components of South African degrees.

If the *CEFR* framework is to be implemented at South African universities, it is important to analyse in some detail the practical implications. The *CEFR* model stipulates as core competences ‘listening’, ‘reading’, ‘social interaction’ (signifying participation in social exchange), ‘spoken production’ (meaning continuous speech) and ‘writing’. The term ‘listening’ requires elaboration. The word itself may evoke a certain degree of passivity but, in the specific context of foreign-language learning, it must be understood to refer to an internal process within the **actively listening** student and is, therefore, accompanied by understanding. I propose, then, that the five core competences, scale, and Reference Level Descriptions as specified by the *Common European Framework of Reference* inform the teaching and learning of French on South African campuses. This is a departure from the way in which French is generally taught at South African universities (cf. Part Two). From my experience, I suggest that the model enables learners to develop better **all** the skills that are generally accepted as constituting foreign-language learning and, importantly, to monitor better their own skills acquisition and progress. In this way,

⁴⁹ Indeed, it would facilitate the enrolment at institutions in other countries by equipping students with internationally recognised pre-requisites e.g., the Mundus Masters programme (see Annexure 16), which is targeting South African applicants for the 2008 academic year.

not only would tertiary-level teaching of French in South African universities be placed on a sound footing academically and pedagogically, but students would emerge with levels of knowledge and competences which would dovetail with those stipulated by the *CEFR* and which would, thus, be of value not only locally but also, importantly, regionally and internationally. The *CEFR* has established six stages of language competence: A1 (*introductif* or breakthrough), A2 (waystage or *survie*⁵⁰), B1 (*seuil* or threshold), B2 (*vantage* or *utilisateur indépendant*), C1 (effective operational proficiency or *autonome*), and C2 (mastery or *maîtrise*). The *CEFR* describes the A category as the elementary foreign-language learner/user, the B category as the independent learner/user and the C category as the experienced learner/user (Conseil de la coopération culturelle, 2000: 25). The Reference Level Descriptions for these levels are given in Annexure 6. In the tables that follow, I reproduce the ‘check-list’ of competences (transposed into tasks) established by the *CEFR* (Conseil de la coopération culturelle, 2000: 26-7) for prospective learners/users of French to assess their own level in the language. I use these self-assessment criteria for the *FLE* model for four main reasons: firstly, it is immediately clear to teachers what the course aims are for each level of study, thereby guiding their choice of pedagogical activities and materials; secondly, objectives are transposed into tasks, thus facilitating appropriate assessment; thirdly, students have explicit information on course outcomes and so know what is expected of them; and, finally, there is a clear progression in skills acquisition, which makes for successful learning. I recommend that levels A1 and A2 should be adopted for the first-year elementary course (thus encapsulating the linguistic competence for survival in the foreign language), B1 and B2 for the intermediate second-year course (independent language usage), and C1 for the advanced third-year courses (in line with the advanced skills essential to linguistic autonomy). In this way, I am advocating implementation of the first five levels of the *CEFR* six-scale and omission of the C2

⁵⁰ The *CEFR* also designates A2 as *intermédiaire*, in the sense that the level is situated half-way between discovery and threshold. I have preferred to omit the term since I believe that it could lead to confusion: the connotation could be that the level is intermediate (as opposed to elementary or advanced). In the academic context of South African universities, it is more helpful to link ‘elementary’ to first-year, beginners’ language courses, ‘intermediate’ to the second year of study, and ‘advanced’ to the final undergraduate year. This also explains why I have omitted *avancé* which, along with *utilisateur indépendant*, is used in the French version of the *CEFR* for the B2 level. In English, the term ‘vantage’ is preferred.

level because I consider it, as defined by the *CEFR* RLDs (see Annexure 6), to border on native fluency and thus to be more appropriate to postgraduate study.

4.ii Organisation of course content

Semester 1, Year 1 A1 Level in the French Learning Process (elementary)

Core Competency	Level in French	Tasks to do in French
Listening	LI - A1	I can recognise familiar words and very basic phrases concerning myself, my family and immediate concrete surroundings when people speak slowly and clearly.
Reading	RE - A1	I can understand familiar names, words and very simple sentences, for example on notices and posters or in catalogues.
Spoken Interaction	SI - A1	I can interact in a simple way provided the other person is prepared to repeat or rephrase things at a slower rate of speech and help me formulate what I'm trying to say. I can ask and answer simple questions in areas of immediate need or on very familiar topics.
Spoken Production	SP - A1	I can use simple phrases and sentences to describe where I live and people I know.
Writing	WR - A1	I can write a short, simple postcard, for example sending holiday greetings. I can fill in forms with personal details, for example entering my name, nationality and address on a hotel registration form.

Semester 2, Year 1
A2 Level in the French Learning Process (elementary)

Core Competency	Level in French	Tasks to do in French
Listening	LI – A2	I can understand phrases and the highest frequency vocabulary related to areas of most immediate personal relevance (e.g. personal and family information, shopping, local area, employment). I can catch the main point in short, clear, simple messages and announcements.
Reading	RE – A2	I can read short, simple texts. I can find specific, predictable information in simple everyday material such as advertisements, prospectuses, menus and timetables and I can understand short simple personal letters.
Spoken Interaction	SI – A2	I can communicate in simple and routine tasks requiring a simple and direct exchange of information on familiar topics and activities. I can handle very short social exchanges, even though I can't usually understand enough to keep the conversation going myself.
Spoken Production	SP – A2	I can use a series of phrases and sentences to describe in simple terms my family and other people, living conditions, my educational background and my present or most recent job.
Writing	WR – A2	I can write short, simple notes and messages. I can write a very simple personal letter, for example thanking someone for something.

Semester 1, Year 2
B1 Level in the French Learning Process (intermediate)

Core Competency	Level in French	Tasks to do in French
Listening	LI – B1	I can understand the main points of clear standard speech on familiar matters regularly encountered at work, school, leisure, etc. I can understand the main points of radio or TV programmes on current affairs or topics of personal or professional interest when the delivery is relatively slow and clear.
Reading	RE – B1	I can understand texts that consist mainly of high frequency, everyday or job-related language. I can understand the description of events, feelings and wishes in personal letters.
Spoken Interaction	SI – B1	I can deal with most situations likely to arise while travelling in an area where the language is spoken. I can enter unprepared into conversation on topics that are familiar, of personal interest or pertinent to everyday life (e.g., family, hobbies, work, travel and current events).
Spoken Production	SP – B1	I can connect phrases in a simple way in order to describe experiences and events, my dreams, hopes and ambitions. I can briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans. I can narrate a story or relate the plot of a book or film and describe my reactions.
Writing	WR – B1	I can write simple, connected text on topics that are familiar or of personal interest. I can write personal letters describing experiences and impressions.

Semester 2, Year 2
B2 Level in the French Learning Process (intermediate)

Core Competency	Level in French	Tasks to do in French
Listening	LI – B2	I can understand extended speech and lectures and follow even complex lines of argument provided the topic is reasonably familiar. I can understand most TV news and current affairs programmes. I can understand the majority of films in standard dialect.
Reading	RE – B2	I can read articles and reports concerned with contemporary problems in which the writers adopt particular attitudes or viewpoints. I can understand contemporary literary prose.
Spoken Interaction	SI – B2	I can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible. I can take an active part in discussion in familiar contexts, accounting for and sustaining my views.
Spoken Production	SP – B2	I can present clear, detailed descriptions on a wide range of subjects related to my field of interest. I can explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options.
Writing	WR – B2	I can write clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects related to my interests. I can write an essay or report, passing on information or giving reasons in support of or against a particular point of view. I can write letters highlighting the personal significance of events and experiences.

Semesters 1 & 2, Year 3
C1 Level in the French Learning Process (advanced)

Core Competency	Level in French	Tasks to do in French
Listening	LI – C1	I can understand extended speech even when it is not clearly structured and when relationships are only implied and not signalled explicitly. I can understand television programmes and films without too much effort.
Reading	RE – C1	I can understand long and complex factual and literary texts, appreciating distinctions of style. I can understand specialised articles and longer technical instructions, even when they do not relate to my field.
Spoken Interaction	SI – C 1	I can express myself fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions. I can use language flexibly and effectively for social and professional purposes. I can formulate ideas and opinions with precision and relate my contribution skilfully to those of other speakers.
Spoken Production	SP – C1	I can present clear, detailed descriptions of complex subjects integrating sub-themes, developing particular points and rounding off with an appropriate conclusion.
Writing	WR – C1	I can express myself in clear, well-structured text, expressing my point of view at some length. I can write about complex subjects in a letter, an essay or a report, underlining what I consider to be the salient issues. I can select style appropriate to the reader in mind.

In this regard, the contribution of this thesis is to suggest a communicatively-oriented pedagogy for university-level French through the identification of core competences for each level of undergraduate study without reducing or diluting the grammatical structures taught traditionally in university departments of French. In Part Two, I suggested that, in university French departments, linguistic considerations tend to preoccupy academics, who may, then, view courses articulated around tasks with a certain degree of suspicion. To indicate that a task-based model does not equate with lesser substance, in Annexure 3 I include, by way of example, a table (for a twenty-five week academic year) deliberately restricted to linguistic objectives (found in textbooks for *FLE* published recently in France⁵¹) but frequently described by university teachers of French in terms of grammatical structures that are to be covered by the university elementary-level French language course. It is clear that adoption of A1 and A2 levels of the *CEFR* six-scale would signify **continuing** to teach all the grammatical structures traditionally taught by universities for the intensive, elementary courses.⁵² Although the *CEFR* suggests between 60 and 80 hours per learning-level, textbooks for *FLE* **recommend** on average 100 hours for A1 and A2 alike, which is approximately twice as much as the time allotted by South African universities to first-level language study. This means, therefore, that the model that I am proposing will be linguistically challenging⁵³. Further, retention of weighty substance enables better articulation between former elementary-level students and first-time enrolling students with secondary school French, since the latter should have encountered most of the linguistic objectives tabled in Annexure 3 during their school preparation for the Senior School Matriculation Certificate in French. In Part Two, we have seen how, with four exceptions, staffing imperatives necessitate that students with school French and ex-beginners be housed within the same course. Thus, by covering so many linguistic objectives in an elementary

⁵¹ Here I would cite *Alter Ego*, *Campus*, *Forum*, *Grammaires des premiers temps* Volumes 1 & 2, *Reflets*, *Studio*, and *Taxi*. Further, I would recommend that the university language teacher, who wishes to confirm that learners have attained linguistic objectives, have recourse to *L'Exercisier manuel d'expression française* (cf. Annexure 20).

⁵² See footnote 5, page 138. The Table is neither static nor exhaustive. I have adhered to an order that articulates with the tasks identified by the *CEFR* for A1 and A2 and which, through experience, I have found to be both coherent and cohesive. I would advise mobility of linguistic objectives in line with learner needs. However, it is important to balance content as equally as possible between the two semesters to avoid overburdening learners at the end of the academic year, giving rise to comments like the following: 'I feel this semester is going too fast and not catering for 1st time French students' (26/08/07 Student Questionnaire on Continuous Assessment).

⁵³ See page 138

course, the university is facilitating a better articulation between learners from two different supply pools. Further, that same improved articulation can be extended to students from Zimbabwe, where the British school examination system is in operation, or to incoming students from various European countries, where knowledge of, and adherence to, the *CEFR* six-scale is widespread. Equally importantly, in my view, is the emphasis that is thus placed on literacy and intellectual development in the learner, which, as we have seen, befits university study. There is a purely pragmatic imperative too for recommending the inclusion of such weighty linguistic objectives for the university elementary-language course. ‘Traditionalist’ colleagues may be more readily persuaded to concede to other aspects of this model, (the inclusion of social interaction and the insistence on tasks), if they perceive the ‘grammatical’ content to be significant; a tasks-oriented model with lesser ‘grammatical’ input might be construed as indicative of a drop in standards and more befitting a Language School. As indicated, the table in Annexure 3 details only linguistic objectives⁵⁴; this is to highlight the eminent feasibility with a twenty-five week academic year of adopting grammatical substance that corresponds to the *CEFR* A1 and A2 scales. Such a table is purely indicative and, as it stands, is deficient. The university elementary-language teacher must identify not only linguistic but also, more importantly, communicative and socio-cultural objectives when planning his semester or year course. It would be superfluous to reproduce communicative and socio-cultural objectives for an elementary course here; compilers of textbooks, such as those cited in footnote 51, detail them most ably and university teachers of elementary language need only consult the contents page of *FLE* textbooks to understand which communicative and socio-cultural objectives correspond to which linguistic objectives. What is noteworthy here, however, is that attentive reading of the linguistic objectives for the first year of study reveals that the latter dovetail perfectly with the core competences and tasks stipulated by the *CEFR*. For example, the linguistic objectives targeted for weeks 1 to 12 provide the learner with the grammatical framework that will enable him to understand, speak and write simply about himself, his family and surroundings. Given the linguistic tools at his disposal he will be able to interact socially by asking or answering questions on

⁵⁴ It is clear from the table that certain grammatical structures are repeated from one week to the next. This is either because these are structures that learners tend to acquire with difficulty and which need then to be reinforced prior to effective usage, or a particularly complex structure may be divided into several stages, thereby facilitating learner comprehension.

familiar topics. The difference with the ‘traditional’, grammatical-structure focus noted in Part Two is that the task-based approach will mean that the learner will have an **active** knowledge of those same structures and that he will be equipped to use them in situations of authentic communication, whether spoken or written.

Pursuing the notion of linguistic objectives, I come now to the second, or intermediate, level of language study. The contribution of the thesis in this regard is to establish a direct correlation between linguistic objectives (which we have seen in Part Two are traditionally targeted by university departments of French) and the *CEFR*-identified core competences for B1 and B2. Firstly, and in accordance with good teaching practice, the point of departure is a previously-acquired skills-base (*pré-acquis*) in that all basic grammatical structures previously encountered are reviewed. Further, this responds to the objective of promoting linguistic parity among learners from disparate learning backgrounds (former beginners and school-leavers, cf. pages 137-138). Annexure 4 demonstrates that it is possible to align the linguistic objectives needed to acquire the core competences and perform the tasks identified for levels B1 and B2 of the *CEFR* (retained for the intermediate level of the model), review grammatical structures encountered previously and introduce students to greater linguistic nuance⁵⁵. The student who, for instance, has mastered present, past and future verb tenses, will know how to connect phrases in order to describe experiences and events, his dreams, hopes and ambitions; he will have the skills to narrate a story or relate the plot of a book or film and describe his reactions. His familiarity with the linguistic notions of cause and consequence will enable him to give reasons and explanations for his opinions and plans. Secondly, as with any organisational framework for course content, each individual teacher must have the confidence to navigate among the linguistic objectives in line with learner needs. Sequence is only binding when not to respect it would be incoherent: for instance, *le ‘ne’ explétif* must logically follow, not precede, study of the subjunctive mood. Thirdly, detail of the communicative objectives attained in conjunction with the linguistic ones tabled in Annexure 4 would be redundant when consultation of *FLE* textbooks provides the intermediate French-language teacher with all the information

⁵⁵ Not unlike A1 and A2, the time recommended by *FLE* textbooks for B1 and B2 is about 180 hours. There is, then, a continuing intensive aspect to the intermediate level language-learning model that I am proposing, which can be justified in that this is in line with the intellectual imperative of an institution of higher learning.

he needs in that regard. On pages 162-163, I discussed the importance of identifying appropriate socio-cultural objectives in relation to the specificities of the South African learning context. The proposed model makes a novel contribution in that regard: firstly, (as revealed by the pedagogical activities detailed on pages 198-204 and in Annexure 1⁵⁶ for Intermediate-level literature), the model exploits the study of literature to target **socio-cultural** objectives while **simultaneously** employing the literary text as a pedagogical support for the attainment of **core competences**. In this way, literature truly supports the enterprise of teaching the foreign language; indeed, this constitutes a significant departure from the *ex cathedra* approach that we observed in Part Two, whereby literature teaching is equated to the dispensing of pre-existing knowledge along instructivist lines.

I now turn to certain B1 and B2 *CEFR*-identified tasks, which require fuller explanation in the South African tertiary-level context. Indeed, as is the case for all tasks identified for levels A1 and A2, the way in which the language teacher can enable the learner to achieve many of the B1 and B2 tasks is self-evident (cf. pages 176-177). Training reading comprehension of notices, posters, catalogues, prospectuses and menus can be as simple as using the authentic documents available in *FLE* textbooks⁵⁷. Nor is there any shortage of audio CDs (indeed recently published *FLE* manuals carry audio and visual pedagogical supports) to train listening comprehension skills in the learner, such as the understanding of a simple announcement⁵⁸. Yet, the insistence by my *CEFR*-inspired model on films, radio and television programmes, or on reports and articles cannot be adequately catered for solely by use of *FLE* textbooks, however carefully selected. Under tasks targeted by the proposed model for B1 and B2 levels (pages 176-177), we read:

⁵⁶ An example of pedagogical activities that I designed for an advanced-level literature course with the aim of assisting learners to attain the core competences of the C1 level, can be found in Annexure 2.

⁵⁷ The foreign-language teacher who is in a position to source his own authentic documents should ensure that criteria for selection extend beyond authenticity to what De Carlo terms “pertinence”, “performativité” and exploitabilité” (1998: 57); in other words, documents must be relevant to learner interests and lend themselves to pedagogical activities in line with course objectives and targeted outcomes.

⁵⁸ Technologically-talented language teachers who possess a powerful PC can also record sound bites on their iPods for use in training listening comprehension by visiting the websites of *TV5MONDE* (www.tv5.fr), *Radio France Internationale* (www.radiofrance.fr) and *CAVILAM* (www.leplaisirdapprendre.com). Songs are an especially rich pedagogical tool; I include in the References upwards of a score of websites devoted to music and song. I am indebted to Jessica Bekker (2008) for providing me with a copy of her research into students’ perceptions of the use of song for foreign-language learning.

I can understand the main point of many radio or TV programmes on current affairs or topics of personal or professional interest when the delivery is relatively slow and clear. (...) I can understand most TV news and current affairs programmes. I can understand the majority of films in standard dialect.

As indicated in Part Two, French Sections at South African universities do not systematically include in their course content pedagogical material that would foster in learners the skills required to accomplish those tasks. It is certainly not the traditional lecturing model, whereby the students hear only their lecturer speak on linguistic or literary aspects, that will equip them to understand, for instance, current affairs in the press, or grasp the content of a film in standard dialect. I contend that listening comprehension skills of the level needed to understand radio programmes can be sufficiently well trained through the astute and systematic use by the intermediate-language teacher of the audio CDs that accompany *FLE* manuals. However, although *FLE* textbooks contain some excerpts taken from the print media, these obviously precede the date of publication of the textbook; their usefulness is limited insofar as they do not deal with the latest current affairs. Furthermore, the reading and listening skills required to comprehend television programmes and films are not addressed by *FLE* textbooks. However, a once-weekly contact period can rectify this deficiency. In 2006, I introduced into the course content for intermediate-level French at the University of Cape Town a weekly language class running throughout the academic year entitled *Le français et les médias*, the aim of which is to train listening and reading comprehension skills in the intermediate learner. Sadly, budgetary constraints often make it difficult for French departments to subscribe to daily and weekly newspapers, or to quality monthly revues and magazines. Even when budgets do allow for such subscriptions, there is enough of a delay (at least ten days) between the date of publication and arrival in South Africa for the subject matter to be less than 'current'. However, all South African French sections have access to the Internet, and thus an immediacy of access to on-line newspapers written in French. Whilst I acknowledge that on-line newspapers are not duplicates of their print counterparts in that they rarely carry such in-depth analysis, I would contend that they contain sufficiently probing analyses for use with intermediate-level learners of French as a foreign language. Secondly, the news items that they carry are posted at the same time that these break in South Africa; this is an important

consideration because, not only is it a guarantee of freshness and relevance, but it can also operate as an aid to comprehension, since students may well encounter the issues simultaneously in the South African press. In addition, teachers can visit the website of *TV5MONDE* (created officially in 2001 by a reform to the statutes of *TV5* and available in South Africa since December 2003), which is itself an invaluable source of material on current affairs⁵⁹. In this regard, I include on pages 198-208 an example of pedagogical activities for the print media, one for television and one for film, designed to target principally oral and reading comprehension skills in the intermediate-level learner.

Turning now to the tasks of the proposed model tabled on page 178 for the advanced language proficiency level, these can be resumed as the comprehension of imperfectly structured speech, of television programmes and films, long and complex factual and literary texts, specialised articles and longer technical instructions. Competences to be trained are the ability to engage in fluent and spontaneous expression in social and professional contexts; precise language usage when reacting to interlocutors; the competence to present, develop and reach conclusions coherently on complex subjects; and the ability to write a letter, essay or report cogently using an appropriate style. On pages 208-212, I demonstrate how these competences can be readily transposed into course content for third-year university courses, by including examples of pedagogical activities that I have designed for use with third-year Introduction to Translation, Business French and literature courses, my aim being to demonstrate that it is feasible to design course modules for a communicative approach to university-level *FLE*, which respect learner progression, train core competences, and contain appropriate academic substance.

⁵⁹ *TV5* was launched in 1984. Twenty years later it was judged to be the second most prominent of all international public satellite television stations (after MTV and ahead of CNN International and BBC World) with a weekly audience of a little over 67 million. Beamed to 200 different countries around the globe, it is watched in some 165 million homes. With its non-stop, twenty-four hours-a-day broadcasting in French on current and cultural events and on-the-hour news bulletins to all five continents via twenty-three satellite channels, the avowed mission of *TV5* is to be informative in the belief that “information is a determining factor in defending pluralism and diversity.” Furthermore, it broadcasts worldwide daily news on Africa. Access to such information is via the website of *TV5MONDE*: www.tv5.fr. On the home page, a left-hand column lists various headings – Africa, world economy, for example. By clicking on the desired topic, one can follow the links to written accounts of the news that can be downloaded and printed. With an interactive smartboard, the teacher can enable learner access to televised news, via the small television screen on the right-hand side of the PC screen.

4.iii Presentation of course content

Presentation of course content involves the means of transmission, the pedagogy or methodology selected by the educator. To a certain extent, good teachers are empiricists in their approach. Although they bring epistemic assumptions to bear on task selection, they tend to theorise after the event as they see what works in the classroom and what does not, and adapt their methodology accordingly. Although scholarship in learning and cognition has made advances, it remains an imperfect science and there are no absolute directives on what constitutes a foolproof method for successful foreign-language teaching. Indeed, it is right that trial and error should remain an important part of methodology, as this guarantees evolution and modification in accordance with learner needs, which Beacco (in Porcher, 1986: 116) defines as being “à leur tour tributaires de leur degré de conscience sociale [celui des apprenants]” and of specific learning contexts. Methodology must be conceived of as implementation, as the science of means, rather than of ends. Although university departments of education offer courses in methodology, the latter has no proper subject matter *per se*, no absolute content of its own. It is true that such courses may deal with existing methods of teaching foreign languages. What is not true, however, is that such ‘methods’ can be applied to any general teaching purpose. Each methodology must be appropriate to specific goals and must, then, embody these. Therefore, before deciding upon which approach to adopt, teachers of *FLE* should first identify student needs, their own needs as well as those of the institution in which they are working. I have already indicated the importance of defining clearly the situational context since every teaching situation is unique and cannot be equated exactly to another. Secondly, course objectives must be stated with absolute clarity. If the foreign-language teacher has not identified the communicative and linguistic skills to be acquired, the outcomes to be attained and has not calculated carefully what can reasonably be achieved during the time available, then he will not be able to select appropriate teaching-learning strategies to achieve those goals. Although I have denied the absolute applicability of one single model, it can be assumed that any university teacher of *FLE* will search for a methodology that will enable students to attain competence in the five skills (identified on page 140) in the time allotted for the level of study. He will search for already existing methodologies that embrace the same goals and course objectives

that have been identified for that level of language proficiency. However, he must know that these will not be achieved merely by adopting a particular textbook. Of course, the correct choice of a textbook is vital; indeed, it is foolhardy to assert that a good teacher can teach (or that a good student can learn) with any textbook. The textbook serves as a foundation stone for the student upon which he can construct his linguistic edifice; it is a link between him and the contact learning experience. However, the priority that young adults give nowadays to visual and audio stimuli requires foreign-language teachers to source additional materials, which are essential to arousing learner interest and useful in orienting both learner and teacher in a common enterprise. Clearly, such pedagogical material must be in line with the stated course objectives, and, by enabling those aims to be achieved, will further enhance learner motivation.

Amongst such materials are audiotapes, CDs and CDRoms for use in language laboratories or resource centres. We have seen in Part Two that French Sections of South African universities have language laboratories at their disposal. Such facilities have their uses but are limited in comparison with the pedagogical exploitability of the multi-media resource centre (cf. Barson & Debski, 1996; Haughey & Anderson, 1998; Martel, 2000). Teachers of *FLE* must, then, be vociferous about the need for language laboratories to be updated and take the form of open-plan, multi-media resource centres, in which learners can either work autonomously by downloading interactive exercises⁶⁰ or on designated activities, which the teacher can monitor individually or collectively. However, it must be remembered that language laboratory or resource centre sessions cannot replace instruction. The natural limitations of the machine are self-evident. It is only when technology (be that in the form of a language laboratory, multi-media resource centre with synchronous or asynchronous learning) is completely integrated into the whole teaching-learning strategy that it will meaningfully assist learners in their language acquisition. Used in this way, multi-media encourage students away from just “attending” and towards what Macdonald & Twining, quoting Laurillard, term “practising, discussing and articulating, thus optimising the opportunities for self-directed learning and metacognitive development” (2002: 604; their emphasis). A

⁶⁰ Such exercises abound. I would recommend the CAVILAM and francparler websites: <http://www.leplaisirdapprendre> and francparler.org.

machine can make a variety of pre-programmed utterances but it cannot speak, which is why it is imperative that budgeting for language teaching should include remuneration of those qualified to staff resource-centre sessions. In that way, the absence of authentic social interaction between learner and machine can be circumvented. It is not helpful to establish parallels between the PC screen in a laboratory or multi-media resource centre and radio, television or cinema. The cinema spectator, for example, is a passive listener; not so the student who is attempting to learn a new language. The independent use of technology is extremely useful for training listening comprehension, reinforcing previously acquired grammatical structures or lexical items, conducting research, and fostering learner autonomy but the educational process cannot do away with contact with another mind. It is in this context of social interaction that the use of learning platforms, discussion fora and student blogs are of the utmost relevance; indeed, university foreign-language teachers should be afforded the time and opportunity of in-service training in this domain and then be supported to incorporate new technologies into their teaching-learning strategies⁶¹.

How is the teacher of *FLE*, who is deciding on which methodology to implement, to select resource-centre material? He must first examine it in detail to ascertain whether it is pedagogically sound and able to advance student learning in accordance with pre-established course objectives. He must ensure that it is accurately coordinated with the textbook. The standards of language contained in the material must be culturally acceptable; by that, I mean standard French, as it is used in Francophone countries, which, as the learner advances in his language apprenticeship, should reflect the varying accents of those areas. Resource-centre sessions should not exceed the forty-five minutes allotted customarily to a contact period. Ideally, twenty minutes should be sufficient for practising the material to be covered, thus leaving the students time for review until a reasonable degree of mastery has been attained. Here, the presence of a teacher trained in *FLE* is

⁶¹ See Part Three: 154, footnote 22 in this regard. In what is a positive move, some South African institutions of higher learning are becoming increasingly aware of the wealth of resources that new technologies have to offer. Indeed, on April 8th 2008, Deputy Vice-Chancellor Professor Martin Hall and other prominent members of academia signed the Cape Town Open Education declaration which aims to promote open resources, technology and teaching practices in education, an initiative that springs from the Shuttleworth Foundation and Open Society Institute in Cape Town.

important in guiding learners in remedial exercises⁶² according to their needs. The great advantage of having regular access to a laboratory or resource-centre for the learner of *FLE* at a South African university is that it multiplies contact hours with the language but this must be under the guidance of the teacher or tutor who supplies spontaneous interaction, either through individual communication or by directing group-learning activities in the language.

I advocate a multiple-approach methodology that avoids the pitfalls of a mechanistic concept of the nature of language (see 1.i), whereby no single objective is sacrificed to any other, with pedagogical priority being given to the spoken word. I propose a notion of culture that is both in keeping with the aims of higher education in general and, more particularly, (as will be seen from the pedagogical activities in 5.ii) with the situational context of South Africa, whereby it is no longer a question of transmitting and defending the values of a superior society which considers itself a universal model, but rather of recognising and respecting difference (cf. pages 164-169). As part of this methodology, I suggest an orientation week for teaching staff prior to the start of the academic year; this should include discussion groups, films, lectures and training seminars by staff and former teaching assistants on teaching philosophy, course aims and objectives, methodology and assessment. Further, I recommend that certain sections of course modules should be taught by experienced teachers trained in *FLE*. These could be designated as observation and demonstration classes that teaching assistants or teachers inexperienced in *FLE* could attend in order to experience the progression of a teaching sequence and the articulation of pedagogical activities around objectives; it would constitute a form of training in preparation for their own classes (which could take the form of *travaux pratiques*). Further, in support of this initiative, I would recommend a weekly session of team-teaching running for one semester, whereby one experienced teacher teaches in tandem with an inexperienced colleague in a mentoring system of ‘*Maître–Apprentis*’ which would ensure individual guidance of inexperienced teachers by their more experienced counterparts. In addition, should a soundproof seminar-observation room with one-way vision exist, I recommend its use so that demonstration classes can be observed and discussed without those classes being

⁶² He can, for example, direct them to the relevant interactive exercises made available by *Forum* on line: www.club-forum.com.

interrupted. Heads of French sections would also be advised to include in their budget provision for the purchase of a camera so that demonstration classes can be filmed for new staff. Further, it is crucial that there be articulation, not only of different modules within any one course, but also of all three undergraduate years so as to ensure efficient, formal, intra- and inter-level communication; this can be achieved, by example, through talks by Graduate staff to elementary and intermediate learners, information sessions with Postgraduate students and Class Representatives, and effective use of the Intranet. I would add that careful attention must be paid to the administrative structure within which the university instructor of *FLE* is working; be it simple or complex, it must be mastered to ensure the success of the language programme. Letting inexperienced, ill-informed teachers loose within an administrative structure unknown to them is prejudicial to the success of any language-learning programme⁶³. I would recommend that guided experience for new staff be incorporated into the probationary period. For short-term contract staff or one-year teaching assistants, I suggest that the guided experience run throughout their term of office. Should contracts be renewed, they can usefully share their experience by mentoring in-coming contractees or assistants.

From general considerations, I turn now to a more detailed analysis of methodology for my proposed model for university-level *FLE*. As indicated on page 140, the learner should be taught all five skills simultaneously, no one at the expense of the other. Whilst the objectives of the oral language should precede those of the written language in logical sequence rather than in pure time sequence, there need be no essential separation of the two⁶⁴. Whereas presentation is inductive and oral, it is followed by explicit grammatical explanation and the written forms of the language, which greatly reinforce it, so that there is no significant time-lapse between the two processes. Value is thereby accorded to the spoken language, while avoiding an unnatural return to ‘aliteracy’ in the student’s mind. Thus the logical order of teaching objectives is understanding – reading – speaking (first through social interaction and then continuous individual speech) – writing or, expressed

⁶³ See comments 1-11 of Annexure 9 Continuous Assessment Student Comments, which indicate how important it is, at an institutional level, to insist that all academic staff members respect proper administrative procedure. At the same time, it is difficult to know how to guard against possible over-administration, especially at the higher education level, since staff members, who are highly qualified academically, can baulk at too stringent control.

⁶⁴ This holds true for all *FLE* learners except for very young children.

differently, reading and oral comprehension followed by oral and written expression. Further, I advocate the principle of single emphasis. Here, let us recall that the Grammar-Translation Method was encyclopædic in its presentation of the foreign language as an abstract and elaborate system of classification. Single emphasis means, quite simply, presenting one new element at a time and the reduction of complex elements to their simplest essence. In this way, each new illocutionary act (*acte de parole*) is presented individually (with grammatical elements embedded contextually within that *acte de parole*), taught thoroughly, practised and assimilated by the learner before he tackles the next element; this ensures that he is constantly working from, and building upon, pre-existing linguistic elements (*pré-acquis*). It further ensures that teachers of *FLE* view grammar from a pedagogical perspective⁶⁵. Nowadays, it is hardly necessary to discuss the primacy of an inductive (over a deductive) **exposure**⁶⁶ to grammatical concepts. By this, I suggest that it is difficult to imagine a modern-foreign language teacher who would ignore the cognitive progression of foreign-language learning and skip learner understanding by starting at the conceptualisation stage. However, this is what occurs when teachers start by explaining a grammatical structure **removed** from the communicative situation in which it is embedded and then ask learners to apply that structure orally or scripturally, which calls into question the emphasis (noted in Part Two) placed on Grammar-Translation by many South African tertiary institutions. Since the advent of the Communicative Approach, it has become common practice to introduce a grammatical concept by first exposing learners to it via carefully selected examples of the structure used in an authentic situation of communication, by encouraging learners to perceive the rule for themselves and then providing an **explicit** grammatical explanation. The power of this guided approach is evident in that students perform rational processes in the new language, reflecting on its mechanisms, and thereby acquiring the mental structures that go to make up the language and with which it, in turn, constructs human reality. In Chapter 1 I have

⁶⁵ The work of Dominique Abry, Marie-Laure Chalaron and Roselyne Roesch from the CUEF, Université Grenoble 3 is useful in this regard (cf. References). PUG (Presses Universitaires de Grenoble) publishes extensively in the area of *FLE*.

⁶⁶ I emphasise that it is at the stage of **introducing** learners to new grammatical concepts that I use the term 'inductive'. I am not advocating the kind of inductive approach to language-teaching that we have seen in Part One as recommended by Gattegno (51) or proponents of the British Situational Method (63) and the Structural Approach (64), whereby inductive (hand-in-hand with implicit grammar teaching) signifies that grammatical rules are not explained but are only inferred from linguistic forms.

given attention to the anthropological and humanistic interpretations of culture, to language as a cultural artefact like any other manifestation of human existence, and culture as the enlightenment of the individual mind. It is sufficient to recall here that **advanced** literary texts have no place in elementary or intermediate *FLE* undergraduate courses. Insofar as language is culture, it (and mastery of registers in accordance with social contexts) is sufficient content for an elementary course. Literary texts (which will be introduced according to their degree of difficulty, as will texts of a non-literary nature) are vital pedagogical supports for a varied and illuminating teaching strategy but the ultimate aim of any teacher of undergraduate *FLE* must be to use **all** the possible means at his disposal to enable learners to acquire the **language** and not to become literary critics. This leads me to consider a further aspect of the proposed methodological model: training in the use of spontaneous speech, as opposed to automatic responses. Insistence on automatic responses rather than spontaneous use of language leads to ‘inauthenticity’ of communication. By automatic responses I understand those that are elicited by frequent repetition (as in the ‘pattern-drill’ variety of exercises discussed in Part One, page 64) in contrast to spontaneous language usage that can be fostered by frequent paraphrasing. The latter affords the student an increased number of possible choices, and thus an increased number of opportunities for insights and mental construction, from which knowledge of the language and, by extension, authentic communication are born. Contrastingly, drills train conditioned reflexes, which lead to boredom and inertia in the learner⁶⁷ and which, further, because of their mechanical nature, can only be successful if the exact situation of communication is reproduced faithfully, leaving learners to flounder in a situation of free expression. From the outset, teachers of *FLE* must employ methodology that has as its starting point what learners already know (*pré-acquis*), which is learner-centred⁶⁸, and which encourages genuine, free expression. Indeed, the successful teaching-learning strategy will begin by creating in the learner the **desire** to know; the student, whose appetite has been

⁶⁷ There can be a danger of boredom with CALL; hence the need for the teacher of *FLE* to select a **wide** variety of interactive on-line language exercises.

⁶⁸ By this, I mean that the starting-point of each pedagogical activity should be the subjective opinion of the learner; this must be reflected in the instruction to the activity by means of appropriate formulation: “D’après vous, ...”, “Selon vous, ...”, “À votre avis, ...” and so on. Such formulation guarantees that the learner can respond in terms of what he **knows**, obviates the anxiety of ‘right’ and ‘wrong’ answers, which inhibit communication, and makes for spontaneous, authentic communication. I give examples in 5.ii.

whetted by a carefully-chosen visual and/or audio stimulus, is already interacting with the language and is motivated to make an effort to understand. With regard to oral and written comprehension strategies, learners should be trained first to understand the gist, and then in detail the grammatical and/or lexical items to be studied. This enables new grammatical or lexical items to be identified more readily and favours the instantaneous flashing of meaning without the intermediary of the mother tongue. Any initial attempt to comprehend that is interrupted by frequent recourse to the dictionary, or which is slowed up by being sensed first through English, hinders the learner in his appreciation of nuances of meaning, or æsthetic quality. He can then proceed to more detailed comprehension of the document. Indeed, empirical observation leads me to believe that progression from overall to detailed comprehension facilitates conceptualisation in the mind of the learner. He then possesses the mental constructs that will enable him, under the guidance of the teacher, to systematise new elements, integrate them cognitively and then use them himself in situations of oral and written free expression. In concrete terms, this pedagogical model translates into adopting a seven-step progression for activities⁶⁹:

1. Anticipation
2. Overall comprehension
3. Detailed comprehension
4. Identification
5. Conceptualisation
6. Systematisation
7. Re-use

Put differently, the *FLE* class must be perceived in terms of a series of **behaviours**. Learning is carefully guided along constructivist lines by being a task-based, shared enterprise. The teacher must create **desire** in the learner, the desire to know and to discover. Whereas Lemeunier (2006: 2) advocates a first step of “sensibilisation”, “a stage of awakening which will enable learners to be sensitised to the overall objective of the didactic sequence” (for example, in the form of an iconographic document, a noise, a gesture, a question, a word and so on, designed to

⁶⁹ For implementation, see Pedagogical Activities pages 198-199. Further, the order of these steps aligns with cognitive considerations outlined on page 190.

stimulate the curiosity and memory of learners with the purpose of provoking the emergence of latent knowledge, new ideas and the desire to know more), I prefer the hybrid notion of sensitisation and anticipation (which I call simply '**anticipation**'), the purpose of which is to encourage in learners tactical recourse to past learning and learning strategies coupled with the pleasure of, and desire to, discover what is, as yet, unknown. Learners spontaneously encounter new material; in small groups they formulate hypotheses, which can be expressed collectively or individually. The second step (**overall comprehension**) enables the confirmation or refutation of these hypotheses, whereas **detailed comprehension** is geared to isolating those elements that will be needed for the learner to complete a specific task (the objective of the teaching sequence). When grammatical structures and/or lexical items need to be identified, such **identification** is learner-centred, inductive (but guided) before being formulated explicitly by the teacher⁷⁰ (**conceptualisation**) and reinforced during **systematisation** activities prior to **re-use** by learners. Lemeunier (2006: 3) creates a useful analogy between identification and detective work, likening the learner to a detective sifting through clues to solve a mystery; referring to systematisation activities, she points to the development of the group dynamic as a useful adjunct. Since students never work alone but always in pairs or groups⁷¹ of three, or in tandem, at activities for which there are several possible answers, they become active participants in a collective enterprise. Group work not only dissipates anxiety, it also promotes collegiality and shared negotiation of meaning (often what one learner does not know or has not understood, has been grasped by his neighbour). It also increases the time that each learner is speaking French: with this approach, learners can speak for 80% of the time, and the teacher intervenes for 20% (cf. page 125). After all, it is the learners who need to practise their French and, as the mediator⁷² between them and that language, it is the teacher's responsibility to give them that opportunity. The teacher moves around the room, helping wherever necessary and conversing naturally with learners. During the report-back session with the whole group,

⁷⁰ If the classroom is equipped with a blackboard, as opposed to an interactive smartboard, the teacher must take great care to write legibly and to order material logically.

⁷¹ As far as possible, learners should choose their own groups. However, if linguistic skills are very disparate, the instructor should designate learners to particular groups and place stronger students with weaker ones. Once students have understood the non-threatening atmosphere of the language-learning classroom, learners should change groups regularly; this maximises social interaction and avoids apathy.

⁷² Here I am using my adaptation of Chevallard's Didactic Triangle, to which I referred on page 156.

students are more inclined to participate because they have already been able to bring their mind to bear on the task at hand. With a multiple approach, there must inevitably be an order of priority. With active understanding (oral or written) and interacting socially through speaking being given first place, second place will naturally fall to writing. It is a question of logical sequence. Writing should follow listening/reading and speaking since literacy is a great aid to learning. With adult learners, there is no interference from reading and writing unless the oral language has been allowed to slip into second place. On the contrary, they reinforce each other. Indeed, as I have already indicated (page 141), the learning of a language is only partially a cognitive⁷³ process. The basic process is rather a *prise de conscience*, an awareness which permits us to grasp the language in a creative act of intuition. We reason subsequently and the latter must happen by means of the language and upon the language. This is what the inductive approach allows. I have already indicated that linguistic objectives must be embedded within *actes de parole* and that this involves an inductive presentation of grammatical structures, which is best undertaken by employing as wide a variety of authentic pedagogical supports as possible (with particular preference for visual supports including television programmes, video-cassettes and DVDs). It is only once learners have been presented with numerous examples of the grammatical rule, when they have conceptualised and systematised it, that it should be assigned for re-use and personal study. When setting assignments, university teachers of *FLE* should view these as practice opportunities for the students; language exercises, like reading or specific skills assignments, must follow, and never precede, classroom presentation. Furthermore, my earlier general comment on the avoidance of questions to which there are ‘right’ and ‘wrong’ answers, applies particularly to the introduction of new material, as ‘wrong’ answers can dampen learner motivation, inhibit **spontaneous, authentic** communication and prevent students from generating language. Furthermore, a question for which there is **one** ‘right’ answer signifies that **one**

⁷³ Sartre’s theory of spontaneous versus reflexive consciousness is helpful (1943; see also Calhoun & Solomon, 1984: 224-250). All mental processes are not “cognitive” and the term is often misused when applied to language-learning. It is spontaneous consciousness which grasps the fundamental language reality that reflexive consciousness subsequently explains. This is the difference between language and grammar. Intuitive and discursive reason express the same idea; learning takes place first by direct experience (intuitive reason) and subsequently by conceptualisation (discursive reason). These distinctions provide a powerful pedagogical tool in that they guide the hierarchy behind the seven pedagogical steps that I outline on page 192, as well as my insistence on the use of pedagogical supports in the presentation of new material.

student speaks, whereas questions that elicit multiple answers mean that more students can respond⁷⁴ (see Annexure 10).

In short, this is a multiple-approach model, which is unlike university courses in French offered currently by other South African universities. The model is innovative in that understanding-speaking-interacting socially, writing are present in each contact period, not just at elementary-level but through to the advanced-level of the undergraduate *FLE* programme, which makes for an effective pedagogical relationship. There is a further innovative aspect to this model in that it relies on an activity-based approach and is underpinned by constructivist aims (see Chapter 2, Part Two) insofar as it exploits both collaborative interaction and access to information-rich sources. The student is presented with opportunities of “learning by doing” via activities that are carefully-structured in order of increasing complexity; in this way, learning is flexibly scaffolded in accordance with learner needs (cf. page 157). Finally, the conscious use of mixed media afforded by this model optimises engaging and supportive, meaningful learning through student activity, in that the use of wider resources, online collaborative interaction, and structured approaches to reflection combine to engage students in a reflective learning cycle.

⁷⁴ Annexure 10 provides an example of how open questions should be used, in this case at the Anticipation stage of a pedagogical activity targeting principally reading comprehension. Furthermore, Annexures 1 and 2, as well as 5.ii Pedagogical Activities (198) demonstrate the use of open questions under *Animation*. I am indebted to Michel Boiron, Director of CAVILAM, for having drawn my attention to the importance of open questions for the teaching of *FLE* and to specific examples of such questions.

Chapter 5 – A Model for the Learning Relationship

5.i Role of the mother tongue

As we have seen in Chapter 4, to talk of mother tongue in relation to South African educational establishments can be a vexed question. Each institution of learning does, of course, employ one of the eleven national languages as its medium of instruction, thereby according it official educational status. The University of Cape Town, like the majority of South African universities, has English as the medium of instruction. The assumption is, then, that enrolling students are sufficiently proficient in English to be able to follow lectures, complete assignments and sit examinations in that language. In addition, I have indicated that no South African matriculant emerges from primary and secondary schools without having had some contact with a language other than that of the medium of instruction within those schools, and further pointed to the increasing and healthy institutional insistence on multilingualism. Certainly, on the campus and in the corridors of the University of Cape Town, students can often be heard code-switching as they move from English into one of the African national languages and back again with ease. Moreover, those students who are not themselves multilingual are in daily contact with the diverse linguistic reality of contemporary South Africa. This phenomenon of multilingualism has entirely positive implications for the foreign-language teacher. Simply put, it signifies that students are more linguistically aware; most have functional competence in more than one language and all, it can be safely assumed, will understand the notion of a linguistically-specific situation. This means that an additional element must be taken into consideration when engaging in the age-old debate of whether to teach in the mother tongue (we have seen that we would do well to substitute ‘medium of instruction’ for ‘mother tongue’) or the target language. We recall that, on the positive side, teaching in the target language signifies a gain in contact hours with the new language, a means of avoiding English becoming a ‘crutch’ for the students or of increasing use of English over time until that language dominates the ‘talking space’, improvement in classroom atmosphere, and greater interest. The disadvantages of teaching *solely* in the target language are that students often do not understand and so become bored or dispirited, expression is reduced to a minimum and time gained purely in contact hours with the new language is time

wasted in terms of active practice⁷⁵. In my experience, the target language should be used **wherever possible**. Comprehension, pronunciation, prosody, social interaction and spoken production are enhanced. However, **exclusive** use of the target language, particularly at elementary level, is appropriate only in a situation of immersion when, after class, learners are confronted with that language in the wider environment and their comprehension is reinforced or assisted by the ‘visual aids’ about them in the wider society. For the university teacher to insist on repeating time and time again in French what a student has failed to understand, when a few words in English would dispel the confusion, wastes valuable time that could otherwise be devoted to classroom practice, flouts learner needs, and belittles the uncomprehending student. Foreign-language teachers in South Africa need not fear that students will develop a dependency on English; they are sufficiently intelligent and, as we have seen, linguistically sensitised, to attach languages to certain contexts and to know that, in the French class, French will be heard and, as far as possible, spoken. Of course, as the learner proceeds in his acquisition of the language, he will naturally have less recourse to English because he will be able both to query in French what he does not understand and to understand the explanation. Furthermore, experience has shown me that when I have been prepared to ‘rescue’ a floundering student by a few words in English, the good-will gained translated rapidly into an increased effort on the student’s part to confine himself wherever possible to French. It should be clear that I am not advocating teaching French in English. Language is a verbal structure of human reality and, by maximising contact with that verbal structure, the language teacher is bringing his learners closer to the reality of the French-speaking world and encouraging that cross-cultural sensitivity which Petit (2000) attributes to bilingualism, in that learners carry ‘otherness’ within themselves and are open to other cultures and ways of thinking. Furthermore, there is an innate excitement in discovering a new language by means of that language. The instructor must tap into this energy by encouraging his students to use their newfound discovery as much as possible. In my experience, students readily do this: indeed, that is what is happening when they use French to converse with the teacher outside the confines of the classroom. They are beginning the vastly rewarding experience of cultural participation, or social interaction. No longer spectator, but actor, the student is

⁷⁵ In this regard, I quote from a student questionnaire: ‘It is difficult to be taught the basics of French in French’ (26/08/07).

living the new linguistic reality as a personal acquisition and comes to have fundamental human reactions in terms of the new language. The student who is properly⁷⁶ taught as far as possible from within the language has an opportunity for authentic language-learning which would otherwise be denied him.

5.ii Pedagogical activities

As indicated earlier (pages 182-184), I include here an example of a pedagogical activity for B2 intermediate-level students to demonstrate how teachers of *FLE* can incorporate press articles into their class via the TV5MONDE website⁷⁷. For a forty-five minute contact period, for which the linguistic objective is the formulation of questions, the RE core competence is the ability to “read articles and reports concerned with contemporary problems in which the writers adopt particular attitudes or viewpoints”, and the SI core competence is the capacity to “interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible” (cf. page 177), the teacher saves to disk the summary of front-page newspaper headlines, deletes all unwanted information (concerning, for example, other links), prints and photocopies the page.

La une sommaire

Sarkozy annoncera sa décision sur les retraites le 18 septembre PARIS (AFP) - 10/09/2007 11h48

Le Premier ministre François Fillon a assuré dimanche que la réforme sur les régimes spéciaux de retraite était "prête" et que le gouvernement attendait le "signal" du président Nicolas Sarkozy pour entamer des négociations avec les partenaires sociaux sur ce sujet.

Pakistan: l'ex-Premier ministre Nawaz Sharif renvoyé en exil ISLAMABAD (AFP) - 10/09/2007 11h11

Dès l'atterrissage de l'avion, une centaine de partisans de M. Sharif se sont heurtés à d'importants effectifs de police qui barraient toutes les routes d'accès à l'aéroport. Les policiers ont chargé et battu à coups de bâton les manifestants qui criaient notamment "Dehors Musharraf,

⁷⁶ By 'proper' teaching, I mean teaching that respects learner needs, controls context, and targets the five objectives of understanding, reading, social interaction, spoken production, and written production by translating those objectives via pedagogical activities into learner tasks.

⁷⁷ http://www.tv5.fr/TV5Site/info/sommaire-1-la_une.htm. Accessed 10/09/2007.

dehors", et ont arrêté des dirigeants de son parti, la Ligue Musulmane du Pakistan - Nawaz (PML-N), une scission de la PML de M. Musharraf, appelée PML-Q.

Le général Petraeus témoigne sur l'Irak devant le Congrès américain

WASHINGTON (AFP) - 10/09/2007 05h18

Le général David Petraeus, commandant de la force multinationale en Irak, doit témoigner lundi devant le Congrès, premier acte d'une semaine décisive au cours de laquelle le président George W. Bush doit annoncer aux Américains sa "vision" de la stratégie à adopter dans ce pays

Sarkozy et Merkel pour la transparence dans le capitalisme

MESEBERG (AFP) - 10/09/2007 11h32

Le président français Nicolas Sarkozy a déclaré lundi à Meseberg, en Allemagne, qu'il s'était mis d'accord avec la chancelière allemande Angela Merkel pour exiger la transparence dans le capitalisme financier.

Maddie: les enquêteurs s'apprêtent à remettre leur rapport au Parquet

LISBONNE (AFP) - 10/09/2007 11h57

La police judiciaire (PJ) portugaise en charge de l'affaire de la disparition de la petite Madeleine McCann s'apprête à remettre son rapport d'enquête au ministère public, a annoncé à l'AFP son porte-parole.

Profanation du cimetière juif de Herrlisheim: le procès s'est ouvert à Colmar

COLMAR, 10 sept 2007 (AFP) - 10/09/2007 10h26

Le procès des trois auteurs présumés de la profanation du cimetière juif de Herrlisheim (Haut-Rhin), où 117 tombes avaient été souillées en avril 2004 par des inscriptions néonazies et antisémites, s'est ouvert lundi matin devant le tribunal correctionnel de Colmar.

Enfant tué dans un rallye en France: le pilote aurait fumé du cannabis

ARRAS (France), 10 sept 2007 (AFP) - 10/09/2007 10h34

Le pilote de rallye dont la sortie de route samedi a causé la mort d'un enfant de cinq ans près de Béthune (Pas-de-Calais) a été mis en

examen lundi à Arras pour "homicide involontaire aggravé par usage de cannabis", et placé sous contrôle judiciaire, a-t-on appris de source judiciaire.

Tennis: Federer remporte son quatrième US Open d'affilée
NEW YORK (AFP) - 10/09/2007 05h11

Roger Federer a laissé une nouvelle marque indélébile dans l'histoire du tennis en remportant son quatrième US Open d'affilée aux dépens du jeune Serbe Novak Djokovic, battu en trois sets 7-6 (7/4), 7-6 (7/2), 6-4, en finale dimanche à New York.

Athlétisme: nouveau record du monde en 9 sec 74 pour Asafa Powell sur 100 m
ROME (AFP) - 09/09/2007 19h18

Le Jamaïcain Asafa Powell a battu le record du monde du 100 mètres en 9 sec 74/100, dimanche lors de la réunion d'athlétisme de Rieti (centre) en Italie.

At the beginning of the class, the photocopy of the above text is distributed to learners. The teacher instructs them to read the headlines in groups of two (or three), to select one news item, and to formulate five questions for which the short text provides the answers. Learners have ten minutes to do this, during which the teacher moves about the class and helps where necessary. There is then a pooling of questions for all the headlines, whereby sub-groups volunteer their sets of five questions. Questions that are poorly expressed (because of learner error) can be reformulated correctly by the teacher. The process is then repeated with the same text but this time learners must formulate five questions for which the answers are not found in the text. Learner productions are shared before the whole group. Lastly, learners jointly compose their own short text around these five questions, while the instructor moves between groups assisting; he then calls upon volunteer 'spokes-learners' to read out their texts to the whole class (the refined version of the texts can be submitted as written production and shared with peers by posting them on the learning platform). As with every pedagogical activity, the teacher should always provide supplementary suggestions (*Pour aller plus loin*) for the students to deepen their knowledge or practise targeted skills in their own time. In this instance, students could be encouraged to refine their reading comprehension skill by accessing via

Internet the full article corresponding to the summary of their choice. An entertaining alternative is to employ the same pedagogical activity for the short news items grouped together under the heading 'The Unusual' (*L'insolite* to be found on *TV5MONDE* by following the link www.tv5.fr > informations > l'actualité mondiale> le journal de l'actualité > Insolite), an example of which is given below (accessed 09/09/2007):

L'insolite

Sommaire

Se déplacer à Paris "avec vos pieds" grâce à Pielib', parodie de Vélib'

PARIS (AFP) - 09/09/2007 11h49

A partir de 0 euro, les Parisiens pourront désormais découvrir la capitale "avec vos pieds" en utilisant Pielib' et ses bornes à chaussures, parodie bon enfant de Vélib', dont la première station a été inaugurée samedi dans le XI^e arrondissement ... par des comédiens.

"Je m'appelle Yahoo, mes parents se sont connus sur internet"

TIJUANA (AFP) - 09/09/2007 11h24

Un nouveau-né mexicain a été baptisé Yahoo, comme le célèbre portail internet, car ses parents se sont connus grâce à un site de rencontre, a indiqué samedi à l'AFP un fonctionnaire de l'Etat civil de la ville de Mexicali, dans le nord-ouest du Mexique.

Photo de famille de l'Apec: le choix des cirés critiqué

SYDNEY (AFP) - 09/09/2007 11h31

Le choix du Premier ministre australien John Howard d'habiller ses invités au sommet de l'Asie-Pacifique de cirés sombres était critiqué dimanche, des stylistes expliquant que cela donnait une image rétrograde de l'Australie.

Les alliances de "Soph" et "Dim" attendent les futurs mariés à la gendarmerie

STRASBOURG (AFP) - 08/09/2007 10h41

Les alliances de "Soph" et "Dim", volées par un postier indélicat, attendent les futurs mariés à la gendarmerie d'Erstein (Bas-Rhin), a-t-on appris samedi auprès des gendarmes.

Un automobiliste du Jura roulait sans permis depuis plus de 30 ans

LYON (AFP) - 08/09/2007 10h50

Les gendarmes du Jura ont découvert lors d'un contrôle de routine à Tavaux (Jura) qu'un automobiliste de 58 ans roulait sans permis depuis plus de 30 ans, ont-ils indiqué samedi.

Les voitures russes bannies dans un quartier chic de Moscou

MOSCOU (AFP) - 07/09/2007 15h43

Un complexe résidentiel ultra-chic de Moscou a décidé d'interdire sur son territoire les voitures de fabrication russe, trop bruyantes et polluantes pour ses riches habitants.

Apec, Opec : Bush ne sait plus très bien à quel sommet il se trouve

SYDNEY (AFP) - 07/09/2007 11h08

Le président américain George W. Bush, présent au Forum de l'Asie-Pacifique (Apec) à Sydney, a remercié vendredi son hôte pour organiser "le sommet de l'Opec" (OPEC en anglais).

Un Albanais au Guinness pour une mosaïque de cure-dents

TIRANA (AFP) - 06/09/2007 13h02

Saimir Strati, un artiste albanais, est entré pour la deuxième fois dans le livre Guinness des records, cette fois pour une mosaïque en cure-dents, après avoir réalisé l'année dernière un Léonard de Vinci en clous.

"Axl", un prénom pas assez finnois pour la Finlande

STRASBOURG (AFP) - 06/09/2007 15h56

Pour avoir refusé d'enregistrer le prénom "Axl", jugé pas assez finnois, la Finlande a été condamnée jeudi à Strasbourg par la Cour européenne des droits de l'Homme.

The pedagogical activity described above has many advantages. Firstly, students discover in tandem, and in an entertaining way, a current affairs item (socio-cultural objective). The brevity of the texts makes it possible for them to comprehend without necessarily having encountered all the lexical items prior to their first reading (reading comprehension objective). By formulating questions and creating their own short text (first orally, then in writing), they learn how to ask questions and

provide information on a subject of topical interest (linguistic – lexis and posing questions in French -, spoken production and written production objectives). Lastly, by working in tandem and then sharing with the whole group, they are communicating in the foreign language (communicative and social interaction objectives) for at least 80% of the contact period (teacher involvement will occupy the remaining 20%). Thus, through the use of an authentic document dealing with adult, topical issues, the teacher is enabling students to improve their RE and SI core competences.

I now come to a pedagogical activity based on a television programme. For a language class of forty-five minutes aimed at targeting specific objectives, ideally a television clip should not exceed five minutes; indeed, it is better limited to two and a half minutes. Experience has shown me that anything longer dissipates learner concentration, dilutes the specificity of objectives, and counters efficient language-learning. The intermediate language teacher has a wealth of pedagogical material at his fingertips when he accesses the website⁷⁸ of the *Centre d'Approches Vivantes des Langues et des Médias (CAVILAM)*, to which I have referred in footnotes 58 and 60. This institution posts, free of charge, lesson plans and pedagogical activities on its website. Using the *CEFR* scales, pedagogues at *CAVILAM* identify the level of learning, the objectives to be targeted and the tasks to be accomplished. The university language teacher, who must manage his time optimally or who has not been trained in pedagogy, thus has a multitude of material, organised thematically, from which to source lesson plans in line with his detailed semester programme. However, the pedagogue with an interest in constructing his own pedagogical activities and the means to record *TV5MONDE*, can himself select material from which to choose pedagogical supports that can fascinate, thrill or amuse learners and cause them to reflect. By way of example, I include below the teacher's lesson plan⁷⁹ (for late in the Intermediate French programme) that I drew up for a two and a half minute clip recorded from the French comedy programme *Samantha Oups*, broadcast on October 17th 2006. In the slapstick genre, but with a liberal sprinkling of puns and

⁷⁸ www.leplaisirdapprendre.com *CAVILAM* is a financially autonomous language-learning centre situated in Vichy, which operates under the aegis of the University of Clermont-Ferrand. Since 2006, the Attaché for Cooperation for French in South Africa and Lesotho, who heads up the *Service de Coopération et d'Action Culturelle* of the French Embassy in South Africa, can be contacted for the supply of the CDs and DVDs that accompany many of the *CAVILAM* lesson plans.

⁷⁹ Since all pedagogical activities pass firstly through oral comprehension and production, the student handout is limited to the vocabulary table and questions 6-8.

irreverence for conventionally-held belief systems, two transvestites re-enact the trials and tribulations of naïve Samantha and her well-meaning friend. October 2006 was witness to an enduring debate in the South African media on the cartoons of Mohammed published by the Danish newspaper *Jyllands-Posten* in September of the previous year. Designed to train the core competences LI, SI and SP, the socio-cultural objective was the (self-)discovery by students of how susceptible intelligent, young adults were to this issue and whether, given certain socio-cultural sensitivities in South Africa, they too considered certain subjects taboo for comedy.

Niveau: B1/B2 (intermédiaire) Rubrique: Culture Thèmes: L'humour, l'interculturel, le respect de l'autre, la censure Vocabulaire: Humour (m) Le sens de l'humour Avoir/ne pas avoir le sens de l'humour Le côté humoristique de la situation Qui manque d'humour Dépourvu(e) d'humour Sans humour Rire [de] (vbe), rire (m.), un fou rire Hurler de rire, rire aux larmes, rire en soi-même, rire tout bas, rire jaune Faire rire (le public) Le sketch qui provoque le plus de rires	Se moquer de qu.ch, de qu.qn Drôle (adj.), amusant (e), marrant (e), comique Quelle rigolade! C'est un type rigolard Rigoler Rigolo, – ote Comique (m.) Actrice comique (f.) Comédie (f.) macabre, légère, d'intrigues Moments (m.pl) de haut comique Slapstick (m.), tarte à la crème (inv.) Gag (m.) C'était le gag! Délicat (e) Satire (f.) [sur], satirique (adj.), satiriste (m.)
---	--

1. Poser les questions suivantes au groupe-classe: *Qu'est-ce qui vous fait rire? Qui est votre comique préféré? Et qui est votre actrice comique favorite? Regardez-vous quelquefois des comédies de situation? Lesquelles?* (3 min)
2. Écrire au tableau "drôle". À deux, faites la liste de tous les mots que vous associez au mot "drôle". (5 min)
Mise en commun. (5 min)
3. Écrire au tableau les trois proverbes. À deux. *Quels proverbes anglais correspondent à: "Rira bien qui rira le dernier", "Celui qui rit s'entoure d'amis", et "Plus on est de fous, plus on rit"? En français reformulez ces proverbes en utilisant vos propres mots.* (5 min)
Mise en commun. (3 min)
4. Visionnement du clip *Samantha. Oups* diffusé le 17 octobre 2006 (2,5 min). À deux choisissez l'un des sketches et racontez ce qui se passe. Pour vous quel sketch est le plus drôle? et le moins drôle? Pourquoi? (5 min)
Mise en commun. (5 min)

5. À deux. *D'après vous, y a-t-il certains thèmes ou sujets que tout comique devrait éviter? Lesquels? Et pourquoi? (5 min)*
Mise en commun. (5 min)

À préparer pour les cours de conversation de la semaine du 23 octobre:

6. *Dans quelle mesure le sens de l'humour est-il culturel? Le rire, tout comme le sport ou la musique, peut-il permettre à des gens de cultures différentes, de se retrouver?*
7. *Les dessins humoristiques dépeignant Mahomet et publiés en septembre 2005 par le journal danois Jyllands-Posten sont interdits à la presse sud-africaine. Êtes-vous pour ou contre la censure? Toujours? Quelquefois? Jamais? Et pourquoi?*
8. La Bruyère dit : "Il faut rire avant (...) d'être heureux, de peur de mourir sans avoir ri." *Écrivez un paragraphe dans lequel vous expliquez ce qui vous fait rire dans la vie, ce qui vous attriste et quels sont, d'après vous, les bienfaits du rire.*
9. ***Pour aller plus loin:*** *En allant à la bibliothèque et sur Internet, trouvez au moins dix informations relatives à l'importance de Molière et de son œuvre.*

Although the lesson plan above was compiled for the intermediate course, it should be noted that the same pedagogical support can be used successfully for **all** levels of difficulty. Foreign-language teachers frequently confuse mistakenly the degree of difficulty and the support itself. Any support, however linguistically sophisticated it may appear, can be used at the most elementary level by adapting the tasks in accordance with learner skills, and vice versa. In this instance, the clip in question could well have been used at C1 level with the identical first five steps but with a more in-depth debate for Question 6 (organised, for example, as a televised debate), written production focusing on press freedom in South Africa (an open letter to the editor of a French daily, for instance), and *Pour aller plus loin* the reading and comparison of the on-line editorials from *Le Monde*, *Le Figaro* and *Libération*, which dealt with the *Jyllands-Posten* issue.

On pages 183-184, I pointed to the use of film as a pedagogical support essential to the core competences of my proposed model for undergraduate *FLE*. Since it is not feasible to include here an example of a film clip, I restrict myself to general comments on the use of film in the foreign-language classroom. A forty-five minute contact period obviously negates screening a feature-length film and, for

reasons already discussed (203), it is preferable that a video clip not exceed five minutes. Whereas chopping up into bite size a news bulletin, meteorological forecast, or documentary can be readily undertaken, dissection of a feature-length film may be aesthetically dubious. After all, *le Septième Art* is, as the term suggests, an art form with æsthetic imperatives including the time duration that directors decide upon for their films. Not that I condemn selecting short sequences from feature-length films; I simply caution that it must be done with attention to coherence and internal structure. The language teacher who finds it difficult to isolate constituent elements of a feature-length film for use as short sequences in a language class, may find it less problematic to use short films⁸⁰. However, whether the pedagogical support is a sequence from a full length or short film, the teacher must remember that he is dealing with a cinematographic work designed to be projected in a cinema, which he will be introducing into a learning situation. It is appropriate, therefore, that he attempt to highlight the constitutive and artistic elements of the film, and encourage the learner to discover these. He will, then, prioritise learner desire to encounter films in French and ensure that students are alert spectators. This can be done by ensuring that the tasks allocated to learners arouse interest and the desire to discover the film in its entirety. For this, the first of the seven pedagogical steps (192), the teacher can play two minutes from the musical soundtrack and ask paired learners to imagine in tandem what is happening on screen, or play the first few minutes of the film and ask them to visualise how it continues. A film can be defined as a combination of visual images and soundtrack, with the relation between these two being essential for understanding the whole, and where the succession of visual sequences in relation to the soundtrack constitutes the narrative. Indeed, it is precisely because linguistic elements constitute a very restricted part of the whole content that films in general constitute useful pedagogical supports for training oral comprehension⁸¹. The

⁸⁰ I have used the shorts selected from the Clermont Ferrand Shorts Film Festival by pedagogues from CAVILAM and recorded on two DVDS, *Courts de récré* and *Étrangement courts*, to good effect. Teachers who are unaccustomed to using films as pedagogical supports, can access lesson plans for all short films featured on these two DVDs via the website www.leplaisirdapprendre.com. I am indebted to Michel Boiron, Director of CAVILAM, for having introduced me to the use of shorts both during a visiting lecture that he gave at the University of Cape Town and the workshop that he ran in Cape Town in 2006.

⁸¹ In my experience, this is why pedagogical activities involving visual supports (for instance, teacher-manufactured video clips and DVDs that accompany *FLE* manuals) **must** be included in foreign-language courses, from elementary through to advanced levels; the comprehension of unfamiliar linguistic elements can be constructed around and shored up by visual comprehension. Moreover,

advantage of the short film over the film clip is, of course, that it is a complete cinematographic creation of short duration; its brevity makes it a useful pedagogical tool because it can be seen in its entirety, while each constitutive element of the film can be an avenue to explore, for teacher and learner alike. In general terms, *FLE* teachers who use films as pedagogical supports, can base their classes around several learner tasks: observation and identification of the constitutive elements of the film and development of learner ability to designate those elements; a cognitive approach whereby learners hypothesise on the content of the entire film based on one of the constitutive elements; reaction to the film by means of an expression of opinion or taking a stance; creative production of images, texts, objects or role-plays inspired by the film; and documentary research on the director, actors or themes in the film (the latter dovetailing well both with specific socio-cultural objectives and the final stage of independent self-study *Pour aller plus loin*). Clearly, pedagogical activities with film supports target oral comprehension (and can usefully take the form of learner self-assessment⁸²), but they can also be directed at written comprehension and production skills by means of exercises and tasks that seek to integrate an understanding of the world of cinema. Film supports can, of course, be used at any level (206), but the pedagogical activities which I have suggested above, are essential if learners are to accomplish the tasks retained for core competences LI, SI, and SP of the B1, B2 and C1 learning processes (176-178).

I conclude my remarks on the use of the electronic print medium, radio, television, and film as pedagogical material with learners' assessment of the B1 and B2 intermediate- level course to which I have already referred *Le français et les médias*. Of the first semester modules 'Language', 'Cultural History', 'Introduction to Literature' and 'French and the Media', 61% of enrolled students in 2005 and 55% in 2006 preferred 'French and the Media' to the other modules; the figures for the second semester of 2005 and 2006, were 42% and 62% respectively. On a five-point scale (excellent, very good, good, not very satisfactory, and poor) indicating the extent to which students felt that they had benefited from the course, 74% of students rated the benefit as 'excellent' and 26% as 'very good' in 2005, 73% as 'excellent' in

visual pedagogical supports are especially important for today's learners who have been nourished on visual stimuli.

⁸² I am thankful to Michel Boiron, Director of *CAVILAM*, who during his April 2007 visit to the University of Cape Town, reiterated the relevance for elementary learners of discussion in the mother tongue/first language of learner reactions to, and understanding of, films in French.

2006, and 27% as ‘very good’. Although comments made by students when they complete anonymously student evaluation questionnaires are an unreliable measure of whether objectives have been attained (formative and summative assessment must evaluate the latter), they are, nevertheless, helpful for gauging learner motivation and interest.⁸³ In this regard, I quote one representative comment: “My best was ‘le français et les médias’. It was the most fantastic section, as not only does it teach vocabulary and grammar, but it culturally and intellectually enriched me, and made me think” (Semester 1, 2006). It may be reassuring for ‘traditionalists’ to discover that incorporating print media, radio, television and film into a foreign-language course can create awareness in the student of a successful learning process based on linguistic, cultural and intellectual values.

I come now to suggestions of pedagogical activities for advanced, third-year level university study of French as a Foreign Language. Firstly, it must be said that, to my knowledge, before January 2007 no textbook designed specifically to cater for levels C1 and C2 of the *CEFR* scale had been published. The authors of the one textbook (with accompanying CD) that now exists for young adults, *Nouveau DALF C1 / C2 250 activités* by Lescure et al. (2007) specify a previous exposure of 700 hours to the French language (more than twice that of students who have completed university elementary and intermediate courses) and indicate that the course content can cover 500 hours of language-learning (whereas time allotted by Faculty timetables is generally about 130 hours). I suggest that, even given the institutional imperative of intellectually demanding courses that I have cited to justify adoption during the first two years of study of the core competences of the first four *CEFR* scales in approximately half the recommended time, it would be pedagogically imprudent to attempt to cover *CEFR* C1 and C2 core competences in little over a third of the recommended time. Further, as indicated earlier (172-174), critical analysis of the latter reveals that the level of language for C2 borders on native fluency and is thus inappropriate to undergraduate study of *FLE*. I maintain, rather, that it is academically sound for South African university French sections to assign C2 core competences to postgraduate study (a *Perfectionnement linguistique* course at Honours level, for instance), and to **introduce** their learners to the tasks

⁸³ See the survey of Bekker (2008) into student perceptions of the use of song for the foreign-language-learning enterprise; the study researches intermediate-level student reaction to my use of music video clips.

enumerated for the C1 level of the *CEFR* without demanding the proficiency that two hundred and fifty contact hours could signify. In real terms, this would take learners past linguistic independence into partial autonomy; it would thus equip students at the exit point with the knowledge and skills required to be operational in the language, while also providing a solid foundation for postgraduate study. Indeed, this aligns with the statement in the *CEFR* that the level C1 “correspond à un niveau de compétence avancé convenable pour effectuer des (...) études plus complètes” (Conseil de la Coopération culturelle. Comité de l’éducation. Division des langues vivantes. Strasbourg. 2000: 24). Comparison with the review of the status of French on South African campuses detailed in Part Two of this thesis indicates that adoption of the C1 RLDs would translate into a wider variety of learner tasks, increased scope of pedagogical material, and improved learner competence than is currently the case. Arguably, at the completion of their final year of study, under the *status quo* students can understand long and complex **literary** texts and appreciate distinctions of style, but **factual** texts feature less frequently on South African university syllabuses for French. Although course objectives are not expressed in *CEFR* terms, it may be inferred from the kinds of text commentaries that students undertake during the final oral examination that the intention is that they should present clear, detailed descriptions of complex subjects integrating sub-themes, develop particular points and round off with an appropriate conclusion; this is, however, mainly confined to prescribed works of literature. As for written production, judging from assignment subjects and examination questions, it can again be inferred that the course aims target core competences similar to those of WR for the C1 learning process (178) and that the intention is that students should express themselves in a clear, well-structured text, explain their points of view at some length, write about complex subjects underlining what they consider to be the salient issues and use a style appropriate to the reader in mind. However, written expression is largely limited to the **literary dissertation** (219-220). To a large extent, comprehension of television programmes, films, factual or specialist articles, the ability to formulate ideas and opinions with precision, to identify themes and sub-themes and synthesise these with coherence in non-literary domains, are neglected. There are undoubtedly many ways in which the committed language teacher can rectify these omissions. I would cite two courses that I have designed at third-year level and which, I believe, have gone some way towards diversifying core competences in the learner and fostering learner

autonomy along the lines of the *CEFR* C1 scale: Introduction to Translation and Business French.

My opening remark on the Introduction to Translation course concerns the name of the module. The reason for this seemingly ‘traditional’ label, echoing a long-held, Grammar-Translation approach to language teaching, is threefold. On a purely judicious level, within a section of French that has included a translation component at third-year level since its inception, one encounters less vigorous opposition when redesigning curriculum if there is a perceived continuity with past practice. Secondly, time spent at the *École Supérieure d’Interprètes et de Traducteurs (ESIT)* of the Sorbonne Nouvelle during 2004, has led me to perceive a correspondence between the suite of skills targeted by *ESIT* and those identified by the *CEFR* for C1 and C2, an association born of the priority that must be placed on comprehension as the first step towards efficient spoken and written production. Lastly, South Africa can now rightly position herself on the African and global stages (135, 146). There is an increasing awareness of the 160 million French speakers in forty-nine countries around the world and of the status of French as the official language in thirty-one African countries. With French as one of the official languages of international organizations such the UN and UNESCO, as one of the four languages of the Pan African Parliament and the most translated language in the world after English⁸⁴, those South African institutions with an avowed mission within Africa are starting to focus more on the importance of the French language. Indeed, at the eleventh International Highway Africa Conference on journalism held at the Rhodes University from 10th to 12th September 2007, the decision was taken to prioritise dual medium (English and French) news bulletins. This confirms, then, the desirability for South African universities of producing young graduates who can enter the workplace with those skills that will enable them to perform the kinds of translation tasks that employers involved in Francophone Africa require. However, (and here I depart from the current practice of many South African universities as observed in Part Two), it is clear that, at undergraduate level, students do not possess the native-speaker proficiency that would allow translation into the foreign language; such an exercise is singularly unhelpful when learner capabilities in the foreign

⁸⁴The website <http://www.franc-parler.org/> provides much useful information on the current status of French.

language require further practice and harks back to the Grammar-Translation deductive approach to foreign-language teaching of the 18th and 19th centuries that was described in Part One. Therefore, I suggest as course objectives for an undergraduate introductory translation course the training of comprehension skills and, through reconstruction in summary form, spoken and written production of the standard stipulated for the C1 scale of the *CEFR*. It is in light of the above that I perceive the module, the outline of which follows, as adding value to undergraduate study.

The course is designed to be an **introduction** to general translation, oriented towards the media. The main objective is linguistic and pedagogical activities are designed to consolidate learner language skills: oral and written comprehension (termed *l'écoute active* and *la lecture active* by *ESIT*) and competence in text reconstruction. The aim, at undergraduate level, is clearly not to train professional translators or interpreters but to foster in learners translation reflexes: an awareness of the differing patterns of informational organisation resulting from two different linguistic systems, familiarity with the principal techniques of translation (*transposition grammaticale*, *étoffement*, *réduction*, *modulation*, *équivalence*), linguistic responsiveness, and lexical progress in the domain of current affairs. In addition, there is a socio-cultural objective, designed to cultivate social interaction in the student, in that not only do documents (whether audio or written) deal with contemporary issues of interest in France, the Francophone world and South Africa (society, politics, economics, culture) but, since pedagogical activities involve metalinguistic reflexion, learners are brought to identify three categories of words with different types of meaning - “dénotative”, “connotative”, and those with a “charge culturelle partagée”, or “la valeur ajoutée à leur signification ordinaire”, to use Galisson’s expression (1987: 128). The module begins with *l'écoute active* and *la lecture active*, the main objective of which is to train listening and reading comprehension skills. Using documents in French from the current print media, on-line newspapers (which are distributed by the teacher and then read by learners) or short clips from television programmes, learners⁸⁵ are trained to hone their

⁸⁵ As with elementary and intermediate level courses, I favour group work in tandem or trios over individual work or an *ex cathedra* approach. Thus, prior to the collective feedback session, students have the opportunity during class to speak in French, to peer-learn and to interact socially.

comprehension skills by identifying in French the context behind the document and summarising the main ideas in the following way:

L'entour pragmatique:

- Le support
- Le lectorat/le public
- La nature du texte
- La date
- et, par extension, le contexte

In tabular form, learners identify (as below) linguistic, lexical and cultural elements that they do not understand and those which might prove difficult for a foreign (South African) readership or audience (mainly socio-cultural in nature).

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • moments qui gênent vous le traducteur/interprète: - - - - - - 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • moments susceptibles de gêner le lecteur/auditeur étranger: - - - - - -
---	---

- Découpage: en introduction, parties, conclusion = l'enchaînement des grandes idées
- Idée-clé
- Contraction des idées principales

By detecting time indicators and logical articulators, students then divide the document into introduction, subsections and conclusion, before identifying in French the main theme of the document and summarising the principal ideas. Since the socio-cultural objective targets social interaction, I favour documents of current relevance; in 2006 and 2007 the following topical issues were covered:

Listening comprehension skills⁸⁶:

language-learning; prostitution; creative writing therapy for the mentally ill; environmental pollution; Internet piracy; chocolate addiction; culture shock; expansion of the European Union; pollution-linked respiratory ailments in the young; dangers of the Internet for minors; obesity; the 2007 French presidential elections⁸⁷.

Reading comprehension skills:

Divorce; the presidencies of Jacques Chirac and George Bush; the war in Iraq; religious belief versus scientific relativism; the Muslim veil; *CPE* (first job contract); happy-slapping; rape trial of Jacob Zuma; HIV/AIDS; 2007 economic crisis in France; 2007 Cricket World Cup; Sophia Coppola's film *Marie-Antoinette*; child soldiers; international condemnation of Robert Mugabe; African development a priority for Chirac; 2007 French presidential and legislative elections.

This module has, then, been designed in line with *CEFR* core competences and equips learners to undertake several of the tasks identified for C1 level. By means of *l'écoute active*, students come to “understand extended speech”, including on television. Through *la lecture active*, they are trained to understand “complex factual (...) texts”; analysis of such texts (in the form of *le découpage du texte* and the identification of the main theme), brings them to an awareness of how ideas are developed, sub-themes integrated and conclusions reached. The summarised written résumé of the principal ideas trains learners in the writing of “clear, well-structured text” and in “underlining salient points”. Since students work in tandem or trios, they have the opportunity to express themselves “spontaneously”, thereby increasing fluency. During the ensuing collective feedback and discussion, they are practising relating skilfully their “contribution (...) to those of other speakers”. To gauge student reaction to the course, I again consulted student evaluation questionnaires. On a five-point scale (excellent, very good, good, not very satisfactory, and poor) indicating the extent to which students felt that they had benefited from the course,

⁸⁶ See Annexure 11 for an example of the test format for listening comprehension.

⁸⁷ I am grateful to former colleague Dr Alessandro Zannirato who, during 2006, was responsible for identifying many of the topical issues listed above, for drawing up the test format in Annexure 11, and for contributing with great success to training listening comprehension skills in third-year students.

39% of students recorded the benefit as ‘excellent’, 42% as ‘very good’, and 19% as ‘good’ in 2005, in 2006 the class was equally divided between rating the benefit as ‘excellent’ and ‘very good’.⁸⁸

I come now to the second of the two third-year courses designed to diversify learner competences in line with the *CEFR* C1 scale. I refer to a half-year course on Business French (75 hours over 25 weeks). Course content (Annexures 12 and 13) has been selected in accordance with the syllabus for the *Français des affaires* degré A1 and A2 examinations of the Paris Chamber of Commerce and Industry (*CCIP*). Students can thus, should they so desire, take the internationally recognised *CCIP* examinations⁸⁹. More importantly, students are aware that they are acquiring knowledge and skills that are of value in the international business world. The course is articulated around the five core competences of listening, reading, social interaction, spoken production and writing. Weekly use of either *Le français des affaires par la vidéo* (Le Ninan, 1993) or *Vivez les affaires* (Guédon, 2002) as well as recordings that I make of relevant French television programmes (Annexure 14 provides an example), equip students with the listening comprehension skills required to “understand extended speech” at native-speaker speed, including on television. The students’ reading comprehension skills are developed to the level of “complex factual texts” through careful selection of pedagogical material (Danilo & Tauzin, 1998; Le Ninan, 1993; Penfornis, J.-L., 2002, 2003; selected texts from French newspapers and specialist magazines, such as *L’Expansion*⁹⁰). I place particular emphasis on social interaction and spoken production, since in the Francophone business world (where the hierarchy of relationships is significantly more marked than in its Anglophone counterpart) the appropriate language register and correct terminology are crucial to effective communication. Students are thus trained to “use language flexibly and effectively for social and professional

⁸⁸ In this regard, I include the perception (in the form of a written observation) of a mature student pursuing postgraduate studies in translation who attended the 2006 third year Introduction to Translation course as a ‘refresher course’: “(...) I would like to mention that on my return to UCT in 2006 I had to attend certain 3rd year modules and I was struck by the much higher level of competence of the 3rd year students in comparison to 3 years before.”

⁸⁹ In 2002, 83% of the class paid to sit the A1 *CCIP* examination; all passed with the highest mark *Mention très bien*. I was next able to teach the course in 2005; no students elected to sit the examination. In 2006 35% of the class (7 students out of a group of 20) paid to sit the A1 *CCIP* examination; one passed with *Mention très bien*, five achieved *Mention bien*, and one failed.

⁹⁰ For topical matters of economic interest, it is helpful to access this weekly publication in its on-line version <http://www.lexpansion.com>.

purposes”. Furthermore, in the form in which I have designed the oral examination⁹¹, students are prepared in the course of the year to “present a clear and detailed description” of a “complex” subject (presentation of professional role and portfolio, company and product), to differentiate between, and present, main and sub-themes prior to concluding (text résumé). The lexical and linguistic specificities of business language require that students are tasked to write business letters, e-mails, faxes, memos, advertisements, minutes and reports in an “appropriate style”. Whilst it is true that the business and economic concepts covered by the course correspond to levels *A1* and *A2* of the *Chambre de Commerce et d’Industrie de Paris*, and that the grammatical structures (linguistic objectives) are also common to *CEFR* B2, the competences that learners develop during specific task-training position this course logically within the C1 scale. Student reaction to Business French has been positive. On a five-point scale (excellent, very good, good, not very satisfactory, and poor) indicating the extent to which students felt that they had benefited from the course, 45% of students recorded the benefit as ‘excellent’ and 55% as ‘very good’ in 2005, in 2006 47% of the class recorded the benefit as ‘excellent’ and 53% as ‘very good’.

Thus far, I have proposed a *CEFR*-inspired model for South African tertiary institutions, which concentrates principally on the **language** components of elementary, intermediate and advanced levels of study of French as a foreign language. Here I would recall the proposed model makes no mention of tasks related to literary texts for A1 and A2 scales (174-175; cf. my comment on page 159). Nor do any recently published textbooks for teaching French as a foreign language to young adults incorporate such texts; reading comprehension skills are developed through the study of factual texts, such as extracts from newspaper articles. Under the heading ‘Spoken Production’, the B1 scale tasks learners with being able to “narrate a story or relate the plot of a book (...) and describe [his] reactions” (176).

⁹¹ The November oral examination (20% of the final mark) lasts 30 minutes. In the course of the academic year, during self-study sessions in the language laboratory, students work through the CD Rom *Négosphère* and on similar but more up-to-date material downloaded from the Internet and posted on the learning platform in the form of Podcasts. Each candidate prepares in advance the sale of a product of his choice (real or fictitious). In the examination room he has fifteen minutes during which he “sells” the product to the external examiner. Ten minutes are devoted to the summarised résumé in French of newspaper article in English on some aspect of the economy (usually accompanied by flowcharts and prepared during the 30 minutes preceding the examination). Five minutes are available for questions. I am indebted to my colleague Ms Hélène Binesse for her work on Podcasts and her design of on-line interactive collaborative assignments in the form of a discussion forum on flowcharts.

Under the core competence ‘Reading’, the B2 scale stipulates that the learner should “understand **contemporary**”⁹² literary prose”. Under ‘Social Interaction’ we read that he should be able to “take an active part in discussion in familiar contexts, accounting for and sustaining [his] views” and, under ‘Writing’, that he is tasked to “write clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects related to [his] interests (...) [and] write letters highlighting the personal significance of events and experiences” (177). Of the textbooks for levels B1 and B2 that I was able to consult, a significant majority carries prose articles taken from the recent print media (such as *L’Express*, *Libération*, *Le Monde*, *Le Nouvel Observateur* and *Le Point*) and two contain within their pages literary texts: *Forum 3* (Le Bougnec et al., 2002; 176 pages) and *Taxi 3* (Johnson & Menand, 2004; 160 pages). The former incorporates six short literary texts: the first is a short text from Philippe Delerm’s short stories *La Première Gorgée de bière et d’autres plaisirs minuscules* (ibid: 54); the second is ten lines of prose and one verse of poetry by Baudelaire, *Du vin et du haschisch comparés comme moyens de multiplication de l’individualité* and *Les Fleurs du mal* (ibid: 77); the third consists of fifteen lines of prose from Voltaire’s *Romans et Contes* (ibid: 78); the fourth is a poem “Mes vers fuiraient” from Victor Hugo’s *Les Contemplations* (ibid: 80); the fifth consists of twenty-five lines from the twelfth chapter of Gustave Flaubert’s *Madame Bovary* (ibid: 82-83); and the last is also a twenty-five line extract, this time from André Chamson’s *Les Hommes de la route* (ibid: 134). In *Taxi 3* (Johnson, & Menand, 2004), there are two short extracts from contemporary prose authors, scriptwriter Richard Morgiève and satirist François Cavanna (ibid: 12-13); an extract from the poem “Zone” from Apollinaire (ibid: 60); less than twenty lines of prose from Sartre’s *Situations* and Camus’s *Journaux de voyage* (ibid: 66-67); twenty-line prose extracts from *Les Carnets du major Thompson* by Daninos; and Montesquieu’s *Lettres persanes* (ibid: 100). The exercises, which are based on these literary texts, comprise comprehension of content, identification of themes, readership and style, of grammatical and lexical items, and elementary versification. We have here, then, three extracts from poems (no poem is produced in its entirety) and eleven scant examples of prose, of which two date back to the eighteenth century and eight predate the first half of the last century. Only the writings of Delerm, Morgiève and Cavanna can be considered to

⁹² My emphasis.

be examples of “contemporary literary prose”. I am not recommending that students be denied access to French philosophers such as Montesquieu, Sartre and Camus or to the humour of an author like Daninos. Yet the literary component of these textbooks is clearly insufficient if the learner is to **understand**⁹³ “contemporary prose”. The notion of selecting such brief excerpts is, in itself, questionable, both aesthetically and if the teacher is to train true understanding in the learner. I question too the relevance to core competences and intrinsic interest of the exercises. None encourages the learner to relate the plot, to account for his views, describe his reactions to the text or its personal significance for him. Admittedly, Johnson *et al.* adopt an interesting (albeit impersonal) sociological approach when, in relation to the Apollinaire poem, they encourage learners to establish a comparison between the working world of 1913 and that of the early twenty-first century, or between Sartre’s and Camus’s descriptions of New York and contemporary urban existence. Le Bounec *et al.* (2006) attempt something similar only once, when, in relation to the extract from Delerm (“Invité par surprise”), they ask the learner to compare social etiquette in France with that in his own country. Interesting though such comparisons may be from a sociological standpoint, they do not engage the learner’s emotional reactions towards the text but remain dull and limited in their impersonal, folkloric approach towards culture.

Autrui est secret parce qu’il est autre
Derrida

If literature modules at intermediate level are to promote the core competences identified for the *CEFR* B1 and B2 scales, then students should be trained to “take an active part in discussion in familiar contexts, accounting for and sustaining [their] views”, “write clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects related to [their] interests (...), [and] write letters highlighting the personal significance of events and experiences” (176-177). Similarly, for advanced third-year courses to promote C1 objectives, learners must be enabled to “understand long and complex (...) literary texts, appreciating distinctions of style”, speak “fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions”, “use language flexibly and effectively for social (...) purposes”, “formulate ideas and opinions with precision and relate (their) contribution skilfully to those of other speakers”, “present

⁹³ My emphasis.

clear, detailed descriptions”, and write “clear, well-structured text, expressing points of view at some length” (178). Further, if the aim is not only to inculcate the five core competences that I have identified, but is also to foster harmony by facilitating simultaneously self-discovery in the learner and discovery of the Other (163-168), then a cross-cultural methodology⁹⁴ will be the most appropriate. By way of example, I shall refer to the course introduced in 2003 for intermediate level students (B2): *Moi Mireille, lorsque j’étais Yasmina*⁹⁵, a novel by the Moroccan lawyer and women’s rights activist, Fadéla Sebti and published, unusually, by a Moroccan publishing house, Editions Le Fennec, in 1995. At the University of Cape Town Francophone literature has been taught in the past using the traditional method of formal lectures and tutorials. This methodology involves the lecturer using lecture periods to explain in French the position of the literary work within its broader literary and historical context, while commenting on genre and reflecting on plot, character and stylistic technique. For the most part students remain passive listeners, occasionally asking for clarification and noting down relevant comments and clues to meaning as given by the lecturer. During tutorials, students typically participate more actively since they are frequently asked to analyse passages in advance and to expound on them before teacher and fellow students alike. Depending on the linguistic competence of the learners, literary analysis can often be taken to a more complex level. This entails the lecturer introducing students to the intricacies of discourse analysis prior to scrutiny of selected texts.

⁹⁴ In this, I am mindful of the five dimensions of multicultural education identified by Banks: content integration, knowledge construction process, prejudice reduction, equity pedagogy, and an empowering institutional and social structure (1997: 69). Further, I am aware of the “pièges de l’idéologie”, to which Zarate refers (1986: 111), and embrace her concept of “une démarche de relativisation”, which I believe resides in contextualisation of documents and consequent awareness-raising in learners of “le capital culturel hérité” and “le capital culturel acquis” (ibid).

⁹⁵ This text sits well with the criteria that Zarate (1993, 37) establishes for the selection of literary texts to be used for teaching French as a Foreign Language: the representation of conflictual, contradictory, or unexpected situations which favour multiple readings; the presence of different points of view on the same social realities enabling reflective cross-referencing (those of the author, the reader, and the characters in the text); the presence of linguistic elements that value or devalue the behaviour of one ethnic or social group; and attention placed on the use of cultural objects, as opposed to on the objects themselves. These criteria ensure that the literary text selected contains that “richesse dialogique” (I borrow this expression from Porcher and Abdallah-Pretceille, 1996: 163-3) whereby the reader is both interlocutor-receptor of the narrative and participator-constructor of meaning by interpreting what he reads.

[I]l ne faut jamais faire de littérature, il faut écrire et ce n'est pas pareil ...
Robin

I contend that this methodology, which effectively uses literature to train literary criticism, literary history, and French civilisation, is not in keeping with a learner-centred approach (cf. footnote 97, page 220) nor with the prescriptions of the Department of Education's OBE policy⁹⁶ and that it should, therefore, be reworked in line with *CEFR* objectives. In fact, translating Peytard, it consists in "doubling up foreign-language learning with other learning" (1982: 14-15). Indeed, the manner in which learners are assessed on literature at South African universities arguably provides no real indication of their level of linguistic skills. Typically assessment takes the form of an oral exposé which learners present during tutorials on the literary work being studied in addition to written assignments. The latter consist of a *dissertation littéraire*, or literary essay, and a *commentaire de texte*, or text analysis, of a short passage. The same assessment tools are used by Departments of French who have retained assessment by examination for end-of-semester and end-of-year examinations. These are exercises which have been mastered, to a greater or lesser degree, by countless generations of French pupils and students alike. Indeed, they are still used during the latter years of high school and at tertiary level in France and French-speaking countries. Both are formal exercises which require the writer to adhere strictly to several clearly defined steps. With the *dissertation littéraire* the introduction must first introduce the subject by formulating one or more statements and expounding on their interest in order to justify the study of the problem that they imply. The introduction will then announce the development and at least some, if not all, of the sections which will follow. Each part of the development which follows must constitute a complete whole with its own introduction and development and must lead on naturally to the next part but remain completely coherent in its own right. Finally, the conclusion provides a rapid summary of the result of the enquiry as posed in the introduction and then highlights the interest of having put the subject under interrogation by leading on to allied questions of a more general nature. The *commentaire de texte* is equally rigid in its requirements. It consists of an introduction and of the analysis of the *centres d'intérêt* or *mouvements*, which, for

⁹⁶ We are reminded in the National Curriculum statement that the Department of Education places emphasis on the development of a "high level of knowledge and skills in learners" (DoE 2003: 2-3) and on OBE, or Outcomes Based Education, which "encourages a learner-centred and activity-based approach to education" (DoE 2003: 2).

the most part, number three but can be limited to two, followed by the conclusion. The text commentary must indicate the correlations between form and meaning. My view of these exercises and the model that I propose by way of reform are significantly different from the opinion held by the majority of teachers of French at South African universities. I suggest that these exercises test solely the learner's ability to master a particular technique; such mastery can even exist independently of any interaction with the literary text. Whilst they may have a place for French first-language speakers, postgraduate students or aspiring literary critics, they are inappropriate tools for teachers to measure advancement in the target language at undergraduate level. Furthermore, they do not equip the learner to gauge his own progress or linguistic autonomy.

*Comprendre les autres est un idéal contradictoire: il nous demande
de changer sans changer, d'être un autre tout en étant nous-même.*

Octavio Paz

Since it my belief that literature is also language⁹⁷, and given the core competences mentioned on page 216, I would suggest that the most appropriate way of teaching literature, is to adhere to the pedagogical steps outlined on page 192. A cross-cultural approach (cf. footnote 39, page 166) is necessarily learner-centred and so all activities should take place in small groups to create a feeling of security before sharing with the group as a whole. It should be stated from the outset how vital it is (as with any course designed to teach a foreign language) that all instructions be clear while at the same time encouraging autonomy in the learner; the language apprentice should not have to spend time trying to decipher what is being asked of him, since that will impact negatively on his performance in the target language. All activities take place in French; I include here a translation of some of the many possible learning activities that I have designed and implemented at undergraduate level⁹⁸. We have seen that the aim of Step 1, Anticipation, is to create a need or a desire in the learner (cf. page 192). It can be a desire to know, to discover something or how to do or be something (the distinction in *DL-C* (145, footnote 14)

⁹⁷ I share Peytard's view that, in the teaching-learning process, the degree to which a literary text can be considered "un document dit authentique" (1982: 16) is dependent on the authenticity of the tasks assigned to the learners. To my mind, the guarantee of authenticity resides in placing the learner at the centre of all tasks (see Annexures 1 and 2).

⁹⁸ I have preferred to place the complete course modules for examples of intermediate and advanced levels of study in Annexures 1 and 2 Intermediate Level Literature and Advanced Level Literature, because of their length.

between *savoirs*, *savoir-faire* and *savoir-être*⁹⁹). It is the teacher who, in his role as facilitator or guide, will provide the means and propose the tasks which will allow this desire to be fulfilled. In this instance, the task will be to read¹⁰⁰ a novel written in French and thereby learn about oneself and others. “Look carefully at the cover of the book. What can you see? You haven’t yet read the novel. Does the title give you any clues to what the book is about?” Simple though the above activity may be, it unfailingly arouses interest and fosters discussion among learners. Step 2, global comprehension, is designed to make sure that students have understood characters and plot and can take the form of that tried and tested but useful exercise, oral questions and answers to be followed at home by the completion of a plot and character grid. Step 3, detailed comprehension, presents the learner with certain tasks which are prompted by the narrative but which require him to examine himself and his own experience¹⁰¹. For example, the heroine of *Moi Mireille, lorsque j’étais Yasmîna*, a young French woman, a lapsed Roman Catholic married to a Moroccan Muslim and now settled in Casablanca, recounts her terror of dying on foreign soil (Sebti, 1995: 33–35). Learners are asked to speak to each other about their own fears and the physical sensations they experience when they are afraid. A further activity, centred on the importance of Islam for the heroine’s in-laws, requires learners to interview a practising Muslim from the student body or from within the local community to find out about Ramadan: why, when and how is Ramadan observed? Another possible activity can centre on stereotypes with a view to prejudice

⁹⁹ *Savoirs* (knowledge of, for example, civilization, geography, museums, libraries, societal organisation) and *savoir-faire* (empirical knowledge, mythology, collective imagination as present in notions of ‘great artists’ or ‘famous sayings’, for instance) fall within the distinction that Boyer et al. draw between “la compétence référentielle” and “la compétence ethno-socioculturelle” (1990: 73) or “fonctionnement culturel implicite” (*idem.*), otherwise designated as “savoir-faire de l’ordre de l’implicite codé” (*ibid.*: 77). Clearly, *savoir-être* involves the core competence of Social Interaction (46, 50, 61, 67–69, 125, 129, 140–142).

¹⁰⁰ Since I approach teaching literature as a support for teaching French as a foreign language, I endeavour to design pedagogical activities in line with Boyer’s five “objectifs de lecture” for language teaching: “lire pour rêver, lire pour rire, lire pour faire, lire pour savoir” and “lire pour écrire” (1990: 136). See Annexures 1 and 2 in this regard.

¹⁰¹ With an inter/cross-cultural approach (cf. footnote 39, page 166), it is important to take as point of departure, the identity of the learner himself: reflection on his own cultural affinities and practices will better equip him to comprehend the mechanism of cultural belonging. The greater his awareness of the classification criteria implicit in his own culture, the greater will be his objectivity towards the foreign culture. To paraphrase Galisson (1997: 152), an intercultural approach is no longer a political choice but a necessity and an end in itself if tolerance is to be promoted throughout the world. Indeed, since 1990 Galisson has preferred the term “didactique des langues-cultures” to “didactique des langues”. (cf. footnote 14, page 145) Reflection on that scholar’s notion of words “à C.C.P” (“Charge Culturelle Partagée” or culturally-charged words, 1987: 128) is beyond the scope of this study.

reduction¹⁰²; in the text, we read, “It is true that in Prado Avenue where Marie Laure’s and Catherine’s parents lived, the word ‘Arab’ grouped together, any old how, everyone who was slightly swarthy and curly-haired”(ibid: 12). Learners are asked to rephrase this by replacing the ethnic label ‘Arab’ by a different one, such as ‘Afrikaner’, ‘Zulu’, ‘Cape Coloured’, ‘Jo’burg Yuppie’ and so on. This can lead on to a group discussion of stereotypes: their origin, use and inherent dangers¹⁰³. Step 4, Identification, differs from the closely text-based Detailed Comprehension in that it is designed to enable the learner to **identify** concepts linked to the narrative. At this stage Multiple Choice Questions (MCQs) can be a particularly useful tool for the comprehension of abstract notions or text-related concepts. (In the case of the novel already cited, the legal differences between repudiation and divorce, for example, or the professional fields in which *adoul*, public notaries, work). Furthermore, MCQs enable the foreign-language teacher to work indirectly on the lexis¹⁰⁴. Up until this point, language apprenticeship has centred largely on comprehension. With Step 5, Conceptualisation, learners extend their ability to comprehend to an effort of conceptualisation, for which role-play¹⁰⁵ is an invaluable pedagogical tool. Still with

¹⁰² The work of De Carlo, who recommends a comparative, intercultural approach to “démâsquer” and to “démônter” stereotypes (1998: 83), is useful in distinguishing the cognitive differences between stereotypes (hypergeneralisation, according to social psychology) and prejudice (pre-judgement that prevents knowledge acquisition) (*ibid*: 91-95). Despite the passage of time, sustained habituations, fear and prejudice appear to perpetuate what Said described as imperialism’s “worst and most paradoxical gift”, that of allowing people “to believe that they were only, mainly, exclusively, white, or black, or Western, or Oriental” (1994: 408). Amossy (1991) provides insight into the semiology of stereotypes.

¹⁰³ Pugibet recalls the value of work on stereotypes: “En abordant les stéréotypes, tant hétéro-qu’auto-, les étudiants seront amenés à se pencher non seulement sur la culture étrangère, mais aussi sur leur propre culture maternelle. Ils pourront appliquer les outils d’analyse et de réflexion utilisés lors du cours pour approcher leur culture” (in Porcher, 1986: 62). De Carlo advances this reflexion when she describes the greatest challenge of an intercultural approach thus: “le véritable enjeu, dans une éducation interculturelle, serait alors de construire des représentations intersubjectives négociables à l’intérieur de la relation avec l’autre et dans lesquelles il puisse aussi se reconnaître” (1998: 87). In this regard, I quote a student commenting on the cross-cultural approach: “The interactive nature of the class made sure that we never got bored! (...). We were a multi-ethnic class and the discussion groups where everyone shared their experiences, brought a unique aspect to the learning process and to our overall development. (...) It was for sure, a highly enriching experience, not only on an academic level but also for one’s overall growth and it helped to develop my ability to think independently whilst sharpening my critical thinking and mastering my literary techniques.”

¹⁰⁴ Moreover, in my view, MCQs that accompany authentic audio documents are essential to “éduquer l’audition”; used this way, they train simultaneously the six listening categories that Boyer establishes: “écouter pour prendre une décision, écouter pour faire, écouter pour choisir, écouter pour savoir, écouter pour comprendre”, and “écouter pour s’informer” (1990: 99). (As an illustration of this, see the MCQs that I have drawn up for Literature Modules in Annexures 1 and 2).

¹⁰⁵ Boyer et al. refer to the potential problems that can be caused by role-play because of “la dimension culturelle des échanges langagiers” (1990: 72). However, experience has shown me that targeting “la dimension culturelle” within an affirming teaching-learning environment is enriching and thought-provoking for young adult learners. Indeed, cross-culturally-designed role-plays and

reference to the novel *Moi Mireille, lorsque j'étais Yasmina* learners are asked to role-play Nadir, the successful Casablancoan barrister married to Mireille, and his eldest sister, Salima, whom he considers to be the embodiment of the perfect woman in contemporary Moroccan society as they discuss the family tensions caused by Mireille. Conversely, learners can opt to play the heroine herself and one of her friends visiting from France as they discuss the awkwardness of Mireille's relationship with her sister-in-law and how it might be improved. Alternatively, learners can role-play Nadir, the husband, or his wife, Mireille, seeking advice from a friend or family member in an attempt to understand why the marriage relationship is fast disintegrating. At a later stage, the teacher can transform such role-plays into written exercises by asking learners to write them down as dialogues. Step 6 (Systematisation) is designed to enable learners to hone their conceptualisation skills. Simulation exercises are ideal at this stage. The latter resemble closely role-plays. However, with any role-play, learners have preparation time with their partners during which they negotiate which role-play they will choose, who will play each role and reach a consensus on what the role-play will comprise; they then act it out, refine it and become comfortable with it. Clearly, role-play at B2 level seeks to assist the student to "interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity", to "take an active part in discussion (...), accounting for and sustaining [his] views", and to "explain a viewpoint" (177). During this time, the educator moves about the room, aiding or guiding if necessary. Then learners perform their role-plays in front of the whole group. With simulations, however, there is no preparation time whatsoever. Learners see the instructions for the first time (as always, these must be clear and precise), stand up and simulate in accordance with them. It is obvious why simulations are the penultimate step in the didactic process. They are only successful as tools for language apprenticeship if relationships with fellow-learners have been forged; learners then feel unthreatened and confident in the group's willingness to cooperate as there is already an established pattern of negotiating, sharing, and reaching consensus. Step 6 is particularly useful in encouraging "fluency and spontaneity", and in promoting flexible and effective language usage.

simulation exercises surpass usual notions of democratic tolerance and mutual respect and sit well with what Vail describes as "active appreciation of the peculiar traits or qualities of 'the Other' as of equal value to 'one's own' and as being worthy of emulation" (1991: 215). My emphasis.

Ce qu'on ne peut pas dire, il ne faut surtout pas le taire, mais l'écrire
Derrida

The final step is that of Production. Certain specialists in French language didactics contest the desirability of the Production phase (163). At tertiary level, Production exercises for the study of literature written in French have been limited to literary dissertations and text commentaries (218-220). There is also the type of exercise (recommended by De Carlo, 1998: 97) which requires the learner to write a story “sur ce même modèle”. Such an exercise is, to my mind, too prescriptive because it imposes a particular style on the learner. It is my contention that any valid production exercise must solicit authentic production on the part of the learner. Personal diaries and log books spring to mind for language-learning; they are learner-centred, operate at an emotional level and so meet the pleasure criterion (163-164). For the literary text cited, students were given the choice of writing the personal diary of either the main character, who commits suicide, or of her husband. Interestingly, on the two occasions when I have taught the text in this way, no male student selected to write Nadir’s diary; all chose to cast themselves in the role of Mireille. Logbooks and diaries as B2 and C1 assignments for *FLE* can provide, then, one of the rare moments when an undergraduate in a South African Humanities Faculty can produce a piece of creative writing which also crosses both culture and gender¹⁰⁶. Furthermore, the creative freedom of such an assignment¹⁰⁷ is more in keeping with the core competences of writing “a clear, detailed text (...) highlighting the personal significance of events and experiences” (177) or a “clear, well-structured text, expressing points of view at some length”¹⁰⁸ (178) than a text commentary or a literary dissertation. I suggest that the methodology and pedagogical activities which I am proposing here, constitute a novel contribution to the current practice of teaching literature written in French at South African universities.

¹⁰⁶ The inclusion of creative writing exercises in the foreign language signifies that language acquisition can be that balanced production of mimetism and creativity to which Petit refers (2000: 21). Further, it invokes not only the left hemisphere of the brain (linear, analytical, logical, the seat of language and reason) but also the right (intuitive, the seat of creativity, understanding, images, shapes and rhythm). In this regard, see Gattegno, Part One, pages 51-52.

¹⁰⁷ For the treatment of learner error, see 225-228.

¹⁰⁸ Since I view language as communication, I maintain that the recommendations of the Communicative Approach for ‘situations d’écrit’ (as detailed by, for example, Moirand, 1979: 9-11) should still hold sway; in other words, writing must be anchored in communication in that the learner should know who is writing, for whom, when, about what, to what ends, why, where, and for whom. These imperatives are implicit in carefully-crafted assignment instructions (see Annexures 1 and 2).

Chapter 6 – A Model for the Teaching Relationship

6.i Teacher/learner interaction

A proposed framework for, and aspects of teacher/learner interaction, have already been evoked under 3ii Role of the language teacher (154-159). Importantly, the teacher/learner relationship is a joint venture involving the learner as active participant in the learning process and the teacher as facilitator, acting as a conduit between the learner and the subject matter (155-157, 160, 166, 217-218). Since the teacher provides the learner with his initial experience of the new language, spoken interaction must be natural and mutually respectful, with respect also being nurtured for both the learning process and the material to be learned. In this regard, I have found it useful to require that students sign a ‘contract’ at the start of each semester, by which they undertake, for example, to turn off their mobile telephones during class, to type their assignments, and not to plagiarise the knowledge of others.¹⁰⁹ Indissociable from respect is the notion of affirmation. Indeed, experience leads me to conclude, with Lozanov, that direct suggestion by way of assurance by the teacher that the learner has all the attributes required for success, is a powerful pedagogical tool¹¹⁰. Conversely, if the treatment of error is the subject of insufficient reflexion on the part of the teacher (cf. Boyer & Rivera, 1990: 40, cited on page 158), it can impact negatively on the teacher/learner relationship and prejudice learner skills and knowledge acquisition.

6.ii Error

It is difficult to speak of condoning learner error without having recourse to clichéd formulæ, such as ‘There is no learning without error’. Hackneyed though that statement may be, it holds true. It has consequences for all educators but particularly

¹⁰⁹ See Annexure 15.

¹¹⁰ As an anecdotal illustration of the importance of encouraging and affirming the learner during the arduous task of acquiring the new language, I quote an extract from a letter sent spontaneously from a learner in her private capacity: “Thank you so much for being there for me last semester, for encouraging me to go on. I found French very difficult as the semester went on and by the time I wanted to let go it was too late. I had given up on myself when I wanted to deregister, but you were there and you looked me straight (*sic*) in the eye and you told me I could pass the course, you believed in me and constantly encouraged me.” This student passed the 2nd year 1st semester intermediate course with 52% in June 2007.

for the foreign-language teacher. Indeed, according to Petit, errors are natural; they are proof of intellectual capacity in that they attest to natural rule acquisition that the learner will later modify (2000: 19). The student of the new language must not only master unfamiliar grammatical structures and semantics but also pronunciation and prosody that are alien to his own speech patterns. It is consequently aberrant to expect him from the outset to master simultaneously all those unknown elements. Indeed, we know from our own personal experience of normal social interaction that first-language speakers may, for instance, use a plural verb form with a singular subject or confuse word order. Teachers may smile indulgently on their toddlers' attempts to express themselves but find similar efforts in young adult learners singularly unappealing. That university foreign-language teachers want their students to progress and acquire differing degrees of mastery of the language according to the level of study, is uncontested. However, the way in which that teacher handles error will impact considerably on spontaneous speech production, learner motivation and progress. There is a hierarchy of errors in spoken and written language. An error, which impedes communication or changes the substance of the message, must be corrected. However, a mistake in word order, for example, which does not prevent the interlocutor from understanding, can be tolerated but may be rectified at more advanced levels of study. The teacher should not repeat learner errors, write them on the board, or teach from deliberately flawed examples of language, as this practice reinforces those errors; the instructor must maximise learner contact with **correct** language usage, not the contrary. A learner should not be interrupted for error correction when he is speaking, as this practice is inhibitory. At the end of his spoken production, should he have made an error that prevented communication or altered meaning, the teacher (preferably standing next to him and engaging eye contact with all learners) should reformulate the utterance correctly. If the error is one of intonation (rising intonation to indicate a question, for example) or a serious difficulty in pronunciation (like [ɛr] or [y]), the teacher can usefully encourage all the class to repeat chorus-like the problematic sound, first isolated, then in a syllable, thereafter in a word. Singling out learners because of their errors, particularly adults, raises the affective filter and stifles spontaneity of spoken interaction. If, however, the learner understands that his progress is situated within the collaborative venture to which I referred under 6.i Teacher/learner interaction and, moreover, that he along

with his peers are mediators in the process (cf. page 157), then the correction of learner error loses its inhibitory power. In this respect, I have found the participation evaluation form below helpful in enabling students to monitor better their own progress in spoken production:

Participation Report			
Name of student:			
Date:			
Participation mark:	1st quarter	2nd quarter	Full semester
Daily performance:	_____	_____	_____
Partner/group work (20 pts)	_____	_____	_____
Responses when called on (15 pts)	_____	_____	_____
Spontaneous volunteering of information (either questions or answers) (15 pts)	_____	_____	_____
Total:	_____ /50	_____ /50	_____ /50
Number of absences: _____			
Adjusted mark:	_____ /50	_____ /50	_____ /50
Recommended area(s) for improvement:			
.....			
.....			
.....			

As with classroom work, I recommend that during oral examinations, which are designed to evaluate spontaneous language usage and social interaction, students should be interviewed in small groups (preferably made up of three learners)¹¹¹. I have found the following mark scheme useful as a general guide in gauging student error and assessing performance during oral tests and examinations. It should, of course, be modified in line with specific course objectives and, as with any assessment criteria, distributed in advance to learners so that they can maximise their performance.

¹¹¹ For the advantages of group or partner work, see page 193-195. For oral examinations designed to test individual mastery of specific professional skills (cf. footnote 92, page 215) or those aimed at testing C1 oral competence (the autonomous or effective operational competence level), individual orals can find their place.

FICHE D'EVALUATION EXPRESSION ORALE

Nom de l'étudiant:

Sujet:

Noter les remarques au cours de l'entretien		Entourer dans chaque rubrique la note retenue (Le total fait, l'examinateur reste <u>libre</u> de moduler la note en fonction de son impression globale)				
OBSERVATIONS		EVALUATION		NOTATION		
				Satisfaisant	Moyen	Insuffisant
Exposé (contenu)	- Structure & cohérence			2	1	0
	- Pertinence			2	1	0
	- Lit ses notes			-2		
TOTAL : _____ /4						
Langue	- Prononciation et prosodie			<u>Correcte</u> 3	<u>Moyenne</u> 2	<u>Faible</u> 1
	- Lexique			<u>Correct & varié</u> 2	<u>Correct & non varié</u> 1	<u>Faible</u> 0
	- Correction de la langue	<u>Excellente</u> 4	<u>Correcte</u> 3	<u>Quelques fautes</u> 2	<u>Fautes fréquentes</u> 1 - 0	<u>Très incorrecte</u> -2
TOTAL : _____ /11						
Discussion				Oui	Non	
	- Comprend questions & objections			1	0	
	- Capacité à argumenter			1	0	
	- Participe activement à la discussion			1	0	
	- Sait se faire comprendre			<u>Bien</u> <u>Assez bien</u> 2	<u>Moyen</u> 1	<u>Faible</u> 0
TOTAL : _____ /5						

TOTAL GENERAL : _____ / 20

All errors in written production should be corrected¹¹². It is confusing for the learner to have an error condoned at elementary level, which is suddenly rejected at intermediate level; when his written assignment is returned to him with uncorrected mistakes, he does not understand that there are errors in his work and assumes that he has written correct French, he will reproduce the same mistakes, which will become increasingly difficult to eradicate. However, it is illogical and counterproductive to penalise each error. It is at the preparation stage that the teacher must decide on the outcomes of the exercise¹¹³: in an exercise designed to test use and knowledge of the past subjunctive, the student should not be penalised for incorrect use of a present participle, although the teacher will correct that error. Exercises that involve free expression¹¹⁴ are necessarily more creative, thus involve greater risk-taking, and are subjectively personal in nature. It is, therefore, helpful if the learner-writer can submit a first draft, on which the teacher can indicate where the language errors lie; the language teacher who does this, is sensitive to learner vulnerability¹¹⁵ and encouraging student self-improvement.

6.iii Assessment

Assessment is an area of the learning-teaching process that is as problematical as it is important. There is now a significant body of scholarship attesting to the import, and nature, of assessment criteria, objectives, methods, and outcomes. Personal empirical observation during twenty years has further convinced me of the positive effects of carefully-crafted assessment and, equally, of the potentially harmful consequences of cavalier evaluation. Indeed, studies of student learning dating back nearly four decades already indicated that students are more influenced by assessment methods than they are by teaching (Snyder, 1971 in Wicke, 1974: 234). Students continue to strategise with “selective negligence” since Snyder first formulated his notion of a ‘Hidden Curriculum’, to which students must pay attention if they want to succeed, regardless of whether documentation specifies

¹¹² Good, basic classroom practice is equally as useful at tertiary as at primary and secondary levels: writing on alternate lines allows for clear correction; the teacher must have sufficient respect for the student to correct legibly; writing corrections in a clearly-visible colour other than red, is less alarming.

¹¹³ Coherence between outcomes, the clarity of the instruction and the attribution of marks is essential to good teaching practice: it guarantees teacher objectivity and guides learner production. In my experience, this practice is frequently neglected by tertiary-level teachers of French.

¹¹⁴ See pages 224 and Annexures 1 and 2.

¹¹⁵ Crooks (1988: 438-481) is helpful in clarifying the importance of affirming the learner through the sensitive handling of student error.

which skills or body of knowledge the assessment is intended to evaluate (MacFarlane, 1992: 60-70). Whilst, as we have seen (226), learner encouragement and affirmation are important strategies in the teaching-learning process, institutional constraints must be respected and, if universities are to deliver degrees, these must be true reflections of knowledge and skills acquisition. I have suggested that the adoption of task-based course objectives along the lines of the *CEFR*, would facilitate objective, equitable assessment through the evaluation of skills and act as a guarantor of quality and international comparability. The practical implementation of such a policy necessarily involves analysis of assessment modalities (formative versus summative¹¹⁶, classwork, assignments, tests, examinations) and their respective merits.

In my view, assessment for tertiary level *FLE* should involve only continuous assessment of pedagogical activities undertaken both in class and at home in preparation for class. In this I am guided firstly by the appropriateness of placing the learner at the centre of his own language apprenticeship. Not only do the majority of students prefer continuous assessment but they also find it fairer and more conducive to better time management¹¹⁷. Various combinations of coursework with examinations produce better average marks by 12% than do examinations alone (Chansarkar & Raut-Roy, 1987: 115-122); indeed, throughput rate is lower with assessment by examinations only (Gibbs & Lucas, 1997: 183-192). Of course, student preference and improved throughput alone are insufficient reasons for adopting continuous assessment. More important is the fact that undergraduate examinations appear to be poor predictors of subsequent academic and professional performance (Warren, 1971 and Baird, 1985: 3-85 respectively). Conway et al.'s finding that coursework marks predict long-term learning of course content more accurately than examinations (1992: 49-57) confirms Marton and Wenestam's 1978

¹¹⁶ I believe Boyer's definition (1990: 174) of 'évaluation formative' as "évaluation initiale ou diagnostique pour mesurer les pré-acquis" and 'évaluation sommative', which is "en fin de parcours" needs some clarification. In my view, the former should not be an either/or but should rather take the form of continuous, regular monitoring of whether course objectives are being met (with each assessment module having "les pré-acquis" as its starting-point). 'Évaluation sommative' should not only cover the final learner assessment but should equally include assessment of the course carried out by the teacher himself; by means of student evaluation questionnaires and semester marks, he can ascertain whether the teaching-learning experience has enabled objectives to be met.

¹¹⁷ In 2007, 64.5% of first-level students of French preferred continuous assessment to examinations, 54.5% of second-level students, and 78.6% of third-level students, (Annexures 7 and 8). Starr (1970: 243-253) and Kniveton (1996: 229-238) provide useful information on student preference for CA.

work on surface and deep approaches to learning. However, the correlation found by Forbes & Spence (1991: 102-7) between peer-marked weekly problem sheets and improved examination results, would indicate that it is student **engagement** in learning tasks, not the quantity of marking done by instructors, which determines successful learning outcomes. It may be comforting to university foreign-language teachers, overburdened as they are with duties involving administration, research and social responsiveness, to know that generating student engagement by means of learning tasks need not signify increased marking. I imply earlier (151) that university foreign-language teachers may find a solution to the daunting prospect of assessing frequent and regular assignments in ‘imperfect’ peer assessment. Indeed, Gibbs & Simpson are at pains to point out that, although “[m]uch of the literature (...) assumes that self- and peer-assessment is primarily a labour-saving device (...), the real value may lie in students internalising the standards expected so that they can supervise themselves and improve the quality of their own assignments prior to submitting them” (2004-2005: 18). Moreover, since students can easily misunderstand assessment criteria (Penny & Grover, 1996: 173-184), it is certainly helpful to provide multiple feedbacks to reorient student efforts in appropriate directions (Carless, 2002: 353-363). Self- and peer-assessment can also be important in informing students as to the standard to which they must aspire. Indeed, conveying high expectations is one of Chickering & Gamson’s principles of good practice in undergraduate education (1987), to which I refer in footnote 128. Whereas feedback, model answers and exemplars assist greatly in establishing expectations, self-assessment enables learners to internalise such expectations (Orsmond et al., 2002: 309-323). Furthermore, self-assessment has been shown to increase both student performance and control over learning strategies (Dochy et al., 1999: 331-350).

Feedback? No, just give us the answers
Wotjas

Interestingly, and confirming what I have posited regarding correction of learner error in written work (229), Hattie (1987: 197-212) and Black and Wiliam (1998: 7-74) signal that the most powerful single influence on successful learning outcomes is feedback. Furthermore, Yorke (2001: 115-126) indicates that formative assessment affects learner retention and points to its importance for ‘academic

integration' (citing Tinto, 1993). Sadler (1989: 119-144) maintains that the ultimate goal and benefit of feedback is that it can teach students to monitor their own performance. Although this research is school-based, it covers enquiry into reactions of learners in their late teens and it is, therefore, logical to posit its applicability to young adults in a higher education situation. As standard classroom practice, the trained and/or experienced teacher of *FLE* will automatically give students opportunities to practise skills and consolidate learning, reactivate and consolidate prerequisite skills and/or knowledge prior to the introduction of new material, focus on the most important aspects of the material to be learned, foster effective learning strategies, enable students to monitor their own progress and self-evaluate (as in the example of the Participation Report, 227), provide results of formative assessment and corrective feedback timeously, and suggest additional learning activities to increase mastery (as in *Pour aller plus loin*, 200, 205, 207)¹¹⁸. Gibbs and Simpson point out that the conditions outlined above refer to two fairly distinct areas of influence, in that not only does the design of assessment systems and assignments affect how much students study¹¹⁹, what they study and the quality of their engagement, but equally feedback has an important bearing on learning (2004-2005: 10). The first area of influence involves the relationship between time allocation for the course, student time management and student time spent on the task (designated by Chickering and Gamson, in Knapper & Cropley, 1987: 157) as the 'time on task' principle). Observation leads me to suggest that, although some students may bemoan the time on task for French (UCT Student Evaluation Questionnaires 2003-2007), there is a strong correlation between it and student achievement¹²⁰. Experienced language teachers will be aware that the relationship between learner effort and marks is somewhat complicated. Indeed, students can spend many hours on their studies but achieve poorly, although Kember et al. (1996: 347-358) state that students' perception of their own effort depends more on their degree of motivation than on time spent. The SAQA norm for South Africa calls for undergraduate courses to involve 10 notional hours on the part of the student for each credit point

¹¹⁸ Gagne's analysis (1977) is useful in highlighting the measures which prepare learners for assessment.

¹¹⁹ See Annexures 7-9 on Continuous Assessment.

¹²⁰ This supports Berliner's findings (1984). Although we saw in Part Two that there is no visible trend confirming the direct link between CA and pass rates at certain South African universities, the data analysed did not include degrees of passing or failing; it is not possible, then, to draw any conclusions from that analysis of a correlation between CA and **levels** of achievement.

(with a typical 3-year degree equalling a minimum of 360 credit points¹²¹). Experience leads me to conclude that not only do some students spend many more hours than the time stipulated without necessarily faring better than their peers when assessed, but also that the more experienced students time-manage more effectively, presumably because they have better understood what is expected of them and are more familiar with the assessment methods used. Further, I have found (like Gibbs & Simpson, 2004-2005: 12), that “[t]ime and effort can also be captured through social pressure”, in that students will double their efforts if giving an oral presentation before their peers so as to avoid embarrassment, or if participating in an assessed group assignment in order not to incur peer disapproval. As teachers, we should select assessment methods judiciously so as to orient student effort towards the most important parts of the course as an aid to learner success. Furthermore, I would suggest that examinations concentrate student study effort into a short, intensive period (which may be why some students prefer examinations to continuous assessment). For those institutions which insist on semester- and year-end, written examinations, I would recommend frequent, short assignments or computer-based, self-study tests to distribute student effort throughout the course. Indeed, Race, citing Salmon (2004), highlights ‘the power of well-moderated online feedback to students’ (in the form of instantaneous on-screen correct options) as a mechanism to ‘make online learning a productive and active learning experience’ (2006: 1). Further, for foreign-language courses, I would recommend shorter, more regular assignments in place of longer, infrequent assignments (like the literary dissertation), which result in short bursts of intensive studying and student ignorance of topics not covered by the assignment.

Indeed, it is important that *FLE* teachers identify assessment tasks that engage the student in **appropriate** learning activities. Scouler & Prosser (1994: 267-280), Tang (1994: 151-170), Gibbs & Simpson (2004-2005: 15), and Scouler (1998: 453-472) maintain that studying for MCQs¹²² and examinations can orient students towards a ‘surface approach’ although students’ approaches to learning may have as much impact as the form of test (ibid); this is supported by Macdonald’s &

¹²¹ For findings on the relationship between credit points, time on task, assessment methods and outcomes, see Moffat (1989), Hutchings et al. (1991), Angelo & Cross (1993), Innis (1996), Gardiner (1997), and Brittingham (1998).

¹²² As indicated on page 222, I find MCQs effective for working indirectly on the lexis and for aiding learner conceptualisation of socio-cultural specificities, particularly with regard to literary texts.

Twining's findings that students may take a deep approach when revising for MCQs, low level demand tests, and examinations ¹²³ an integrated approach to revision is adopted (2002: 603-17). Much assessment fails because it does not engage students with appropriate types of learning. It is undoubtedly a truism to state that the only way to learn how to speak French well is to speak it often, and the only means of writing it well is to write it often. Practice develops facility and mastery, and this should underpin assessment design. Of course, it is possible that the product and the mark are less important than the process; group work, for example, (whether *in vivo* or in the form of a discussion forum on a learning platform) can engage students in discussion, exposure to alternative views and different ways of working, a learning process which is more important than the final group product (cf. consideration of group work, 193). We know, of course, that students can view an assignment that is intended to be a learning process only in terms of obtaining the highest mark possible. This can be the result of individual learner orientation but can be mitigated against by thoughtful selection of the task, markscheme, and feedback.

Feedback forms an integral part of any appropriate assessment technique. We read in Chickering & Gamson: "Knowing what you know and don't know focuses learning. Students need appropriate feedback on performance to benefit from courses"¹²⁴. In getting started, students need help in assessing existing knowledge and competence. In classes, students need frequent opportunities to perform and receive suggestions for improvement. At various points during college, and at the end, students need chances to reflect on what they have learnt, what they still have to learn, and how to assess themselves" (1987: 2). It is important to understand how feedback, a 'correction of errors' (Bruner, 1977: 177), affects student learning patterns and elicits, or fails to elicit, additional learning in the formative assessment process. My experience at the University of Cape Town leads me to conclude that, not only does feedback vary between courses, but that it also differs considerably between modules of the same course, according to the lecturer concerned. Experience further leads me to suggest that for feedback to support the assessment process, it needs to be regular and on small parts of course content. Detailed

¹²³ My emphasis.

¹²⁴ In this regard, I quote a student comment from the 26/08/07 questionnaire on Continuous Assessment: "I feel that we do not benefit from continuous assessment to the full extent because we are given little/no feedback when getting our work back and, as a result, find it difficult to improve."

feedback on, for instance, a semester-end, extended essay is unlikely to assist student learning across the whole course. From the correlation between final examination results and the frequency and regularity of computer-based self-study testing (Cook, 2001: 539-549), I conclude that this form of self-assessment can be useful, which is the justification behind my insistence on weekly language-laboratory sessions, during which students work independently on interactive language exercises¹²⁵. Gibbs & Simpson posit that the frequency and speed of the feedback may compensate for the “lack of individualization” (2004-2005: 15). The nature of effective feedback clearly differs between disciplines and contact-, as opposed to, distance-learning. It appears logical that individual written feedback must always be specific: the student who sees on his neighbour’s assignment a virtual carbon copy of what is on his own, is unlikely to incorporate the advice into his future learning strategies¹²⁶. Clearly, feedback must focus on student performance and learning, actions under the student’s control, as opposed to student characteristics. Further, a poor mark, unaccompanied by a remark, or a poor remark, accompanied by a damning comment (as opposed to one which indicates how the student could **improve** his performance), can be particularly unhelpful. Personal, critical feedback damages learner self-esteem and sense of competence (cf. 6.i Learner/teacher interaction, 225); it is particularly hazardous because of the direct link between ‘self-efficacy’, effort, persistence with tasks, deep approach to learning, and achievement (Schunk, 1984: 48-58; 1985: 208-223). Quite simply, content-specific feedback, as opposed to critical feedback, is the equivalent of ‘That was a naughty thing to do’, by contrast with ‘You are naughty’, and encourages learners to change their actions – not themselves – to achieve better¹²⁷.

¹²⁵ There is a wide variety of CDROMs on the market (cf. References). The interactive exercises to be found on the website www.club-forum.com are also useful.

¹²⁶ Hyland (2001: 231-247), in advancing which kinds of feedback are most effective in language-learning, is helpful in this regard.

¹²⁷ Wootton (2002: 353-357) condemns vehemently the negative impact of assessment on at-risk students.

Not only must feedback be non-critical and constructive, it must also be timely if it is to assist as an effective assessment strategy. In that way, students can improve their learning strategy and/or seek assistance. University teachers of *FLE*, who are grounded in the reality of their learners, will, as a matter of common sense¹²⁸, espouse rapid feedback at each stage of students' progress through course units (or Personalised System of Instruction – PSI – to use the term coined by Kulik et al., 1980: 199-205). It is clear that if feedback is slow, it will not have the desired result of additional or altered learning activities: students will have moved on to the next unit of course content and will no longer perceive any relevance. The Faculty of Humanities of the University of Cape Town was wise to confine academic staff to setting hand-in dates for course assignments before the last week of teaching; at undergraduate level, there is no learning advantage to be gained from an assignment completed and assessed after the end of the course¹²⁹. Research carried out by Carroll (1995) on immediate but collective testing and feedback, and by Sly (1999: 339-344) on practice tests and computer-based feedback, would suggest that immediate, albeit imperfect, feedback impacts positively on students' final results. However, it would be jejune to suggest that university teachers have at their disposal sufficient time to mark thoroughly bundles of student assignments, include on each a thoughtfully-worded and detailed feedback comment, and hand these back to students shortly after the submission date, when the feedback can help the students improve. In this regard, Race offers useful advice by suggesting that, on the due date, students should hand in their completed assignments at the beginning of their lecture and that there be no other accepted way of submitting the assignment. The lecturer should then distribute a “pre-prepared feedback sheet on the assignment concerned – on a coloured sheet of paper (different colours for successive assignments)”. The feedback sheet will contain “explanations to anticipated frequently-occurring problems, examples of useful source materials and references, [and] model solutions of (...) parts of the

¹²⁸ Conventional wisdom guides undergraduate language teachers naturally towards Chickering & Gamson's *Seven principles for Good Practice in Undergraduate Education*. This 1. encourages contact between students and faculty, 2. develops reciprocity and cooperation among students, 3. encourages active learning, 4. gives prompt feedback, 5. emphasises time on task, 6. communicates high expectations, and 7. respects diverse talents and ways of learning” (1987: 1). We read that, “While each practice can stand alone on its own, when all are present their effects multiply. Together they employ six powerful forces in education: activity, expectations, cooperation, interaction, diversity, and responsibility” (*idem*).

¹²⁹ Furthermore, this absence of long-term learning advantage is a justification for replacing examinations by a system of continuous assessment.

assignment". After the class has scanned the feedback sheet, Race recommends talking "the whole group through one or two of the most significant of the feedback areas (...), adding tone-of-voice, body language, eye contact", and expanding on a few of the most pertinent points before proceeding with the lecture as normal (2006: 2-3). In this way, feedback can occur twenty-four hours after submission of assignments and, since many students work on their assignments right up to submitting them, the difficulties that they encountered are likely to be fresher in their minds, thereby maximising potential learning from the feedback experience (2006: 3). Further, Race maintains that this can be a time-saving device in that, since students have been briefed orally, many salient points will already have been covered and so individual feedback comments will not need to be so long. Moreover, as a learning aid, he recommends that the lecturer should return the corrected assignments to students but withhold the marks and that, as a function of the collective generic feedback session and individual feedback comments, students should award themselves a mark: "if the students' self-assessment is within 5% or one grade point of the tutor-assessed mark, let the higher number go forward" (ibid). I have only implemented the last aspect of Race's system at intermediate and advanced levels and have asked students to justify their marks. These comments reveal that asking learners to award themselves a mark encourages reflection on the task assigned. Although I have not tested the other elements of Race's system, extensive experience has shown me that feedback older than five days is ineffectual; further, I imagine that this system would counteract the widespread tendency among students to concentrate on marks during generic feedback sessions which, although these may occur timeously, focus on corrected but **marked** assignments. Moreover, although Race's system could impact on limited teaching time, it might prove an asset to teachers of *FLE* who are unable to correct assignments swiftly, whose handwriting students have difficulty in deciphering, or whose individual feedback comments lack specificity.

Constructive, timeous feedback must also be appropriate to assignment objectives and success criteria since this makes visible the evaluative rules for obtaining a good mark. In this regard, feedback has the advantage of being multi-functional: it can correct errors, increase understanding through explanation of specific points, generate additional learning by recommending targeted learning

tasks, promote sensitivity to, and reflexion on, metalinguistic and metacognitive¹³⁰ considerations pertinent to the assignment, advance generic skills through focusing not only on content but, equally importantly, on skills, and support the continuation of learning in students. Which of these elements are to be targeted by particular feedback will depend on the objectives of the assessment. For example, Gibbs & Simpson have demonstrated that the maintenance of student motivation is the most important factor with the first assignment of a new course and that correction of errors alone is inefficacious in supporting their learning (2002: 65-94); thus, it is clear that the initial assignment must be selected and assessed in ways which advance students' enthusiasm for the new course. Further, it is clear that learners must understand why they have obtained a particular mark. In this regard, to enable learners to know what is expected of them¹³¹, assignment instructions and criteria for success must be explicit and clear¹³² (by the inclusion next to the assignment questions, for instance, of marks awarded for sub-sections or particular aspects of the assignment¹³³). Indeed, if the academic task itself is incomprehensible to the student, then he will most certainly not understand the feedback that is meant to help him improve. Gibbs & Simpson, citing Säljö (1982), suggest that students' incomprehension of teacher expectations may be the result of "an unsophisticated conception of learning". Describing students as having one of five conceptions of learning ~ learning as a passive receipt of information, as active memorization of information or procedures to be used in the future, as understanding, and as a change in personal reality, that is seeing the world differently ~ they state that the student with one of the first three conceptions of learning, will fail to understand the instructor's comment that recommends greater discussion and conclude that "[f]eedback needs to be sensitive to the unsophisticated conceptions of learning that may be revealed in students' work" (2004-2005: 18). Indeed, I would suggest that

¹³⁰ Generally, students need assistance in developing metacognitive awareness (Sadler, 1998: 77-84) and in taking control of their own learning (Steadman, 1998: 23-35).

¹³¹ Unclear feedback on one assignment may distort learners' perceptions of teacher expectations, thereby impacting negatively on the next assignment (cf. page 231).

¹³² See, for example, the pedagogical activity on pages 201-203, and Annexures 1, 2, and 10. I employ the convention of an italic font and the imperative form to designate learner instructions. Strict adherence to this convention throughout the learning-teaching process enables easy visual recognition on the part of the learner.

¹³³ If the student is asked, for instance, to compose a commercial letter during a Business French course, he must know at the outset how many marks will be awarded for content and how many for respecting the conventions of a commercial letter. In this regard, see also the example of a partner-work assessment activity included in Annexure 2.

one of the tasks of teachers of *FLE* at undergraduate level is to assist students in developing more sophisticated conceptions of learning through collective feedback, model answers and exemplars. I would further suggest that effective assessment may be hindered by students' unsophisticated perception of what constitutes knowledge. With his 'scheme of intellectual and ethical development', Perry posits that, with the passage of time and concomitant increased academic experience, students refine their belief that knowledge is made up of many right answers that they must learn and give back to the instructor into a more nuanced understanding of what the teacher expects when setting a particular assignment (1970: 23). Here, too, the teacher of *FLE* can assist the student in this learning process of "quantitative accretion of discrete rightness" (Adams, Bell & Griffin, 1997: 41-2) by ensuring that his feedback comments are not epistemologically beyond the student's comprehension. It is important, then, that the feedback comments written in French by the teacher of *FLE* should reflect the discourse that he expects; moreover, he must ensure that he has provided students with adequate opportunities for practice of that discourse prior to assessing their assignments¹³⁴.

I have argued that the teacher of *FLE* should recognise the value of sensitive, constructive, specific, and learner-centred feedback as a tool in the learning-assessment process. Yet can we be sure that students take cognisance of feedback comments, however carefully worded these may be? In this connection, a summary of research can be found in Crooks (1988: 438-481), who indicates that, where marks for class tests or coursework assignments count significantly towards the final mark, students pay less attention to feedback. According to Jackson (1995: 217-222), final-year undergraduates are likely to concentrate significantly more on the mark than on the feedback comment, reading the latter to satisfy themselves that the assignment has been read attentively and marked fairly. This need not mean that we should jettison continuous assessment and feedback. Gibbs & Simpson recommend taking certain steps to "engage students with feedback", such as asking students to specify what they would like feedback on and restricting feedback to that, giving feedback and no marks so that students must analyse feedback in order to know how they are

¹³⁴ Higgins et al. ably illustrate communication failures that can take place in assessment feedback, when tutors criticise the student's discourse without indicating how the latter could be improved (2001: 269-274).

progressing, introducing self-assessment¹³⁵ (without marks) so that students give thought to whether the teacher's views and their own correspond, implementing a two-stage assignment system (similar to Race's suggestion, 237) with feedback after stage one and the mark after the second stage¹³⁶, and posting marks only after self-assessment and teacher feedback have taken place¹³⁷ (2004-2005: 22-23). I have used the first and the penultimate steps to good effect and found that they increase both student concentration on feedback and performance at tasks. I have given marks after feedback and employed verbal self-assessment techniques¹³⁸ and noted higher student concentration levels. Yet, even when students listen to, or read, feedback carefully, do they necessarily alter for the better their assignment and learning strategies? I have already advocated that teachers of *FLE* adopt swift, constructive and specific feedback (225, 231-236), if students are to be able to act upon advice. In addition, while feedback must be context-specific and help students to see where they went wrong, it should also be generic and forward-looking, with an eye on student needs for future assignments and learning tasks. It is unhelpful to write: "Vous maîtrisez mal les temps verbaux du passé"¹³⁹, without recommending remedial measures to the learner, which will enhance his chances of improved performance at future assignments. Whereas Ding (1998) found that students fail to act upon advice contained in feedback, Brookhart (2001: 154-169) states that successful students use feedback to guide their assignment and learning strategies. As with other unclear issues, it is perhaps the difference in individual learners' attitudes, rather than in teacher policy, which accounts for such inconsistencies. Nevertheless, I would conclude by advocating a policy of continuous assessment incorporating appropriate feedback measures for the teaching of *FLE* at South

¹³⁵ The notion of self-assessment can be found in many recently-published *FLE* textbooks and manuals which prepare learners for the DELF/DALF examinations; self-assessment generally takes the form of a *Bilan* or *Auto-évaluation*, where the student assesses his skills acquisition by ticking, for example, 'Yes', 'Not always', or 'Not yet'; for example Chevallier-Wixler, D. et al., 2006: 38).

¹³⁶ With a two-stage assignment system, all students' marks improve, particularly those of the weaker students (Cooper, 2000: 279-291). As indicated on page 230-231, I find the two-stage assignment system particularly appropriate for free expression exercises.

¹³⁷ Black and Wiliam (1998: 7-74) state that, when no marks are allotted, students read feedback more attentively and are guided by it in their learning. Taras describes success with this procedure as part of summative assessment (2001: 605-614).

¹³⁸ By this I mean simply asking students how well they felt they had performed, what they had found difficult, and why, what they felt they had achieved well, and how they went about completing the assignment.

¹³⁹ Amongst similar feedback comments noted in October 2007 on the assignments of UCT third-year students of French, are the following: "Non"; "compris mais d'accord"; "mal dit"; "Un peu compris"; "vous vous êtes un peu trompée mais on vous comprend"; "Oui, mais encore".

African universities. It is my contention that, for all the reasons outlined above, it is a policy that raises metalinguistic and metacognitive awareness and fosters more efficient learning techniques and improved performances in students. In addition, empirical observation has convinced me that, because of the nature of continuous assessment (necessitating as it does, clearly defined course objectives and outcomes, advance-planning of course modules and assignments, and regular communication between colleagues teaching the same students), it also makes for a teaching model that is more coherent and of higher quality.

University of Cape Town

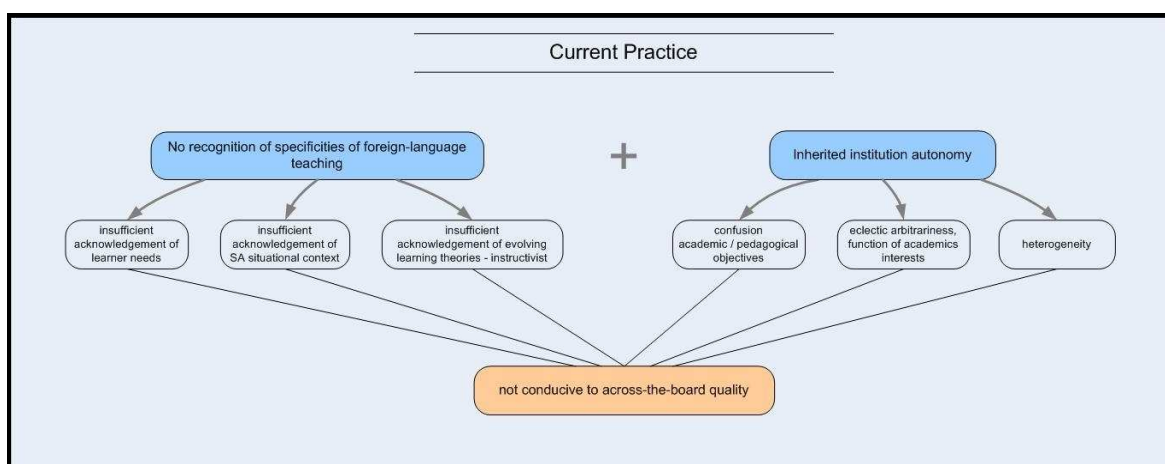
Conclusion

En toute chose, il faut considérer la fin
Jean de La Fontaine

University of Cape Town

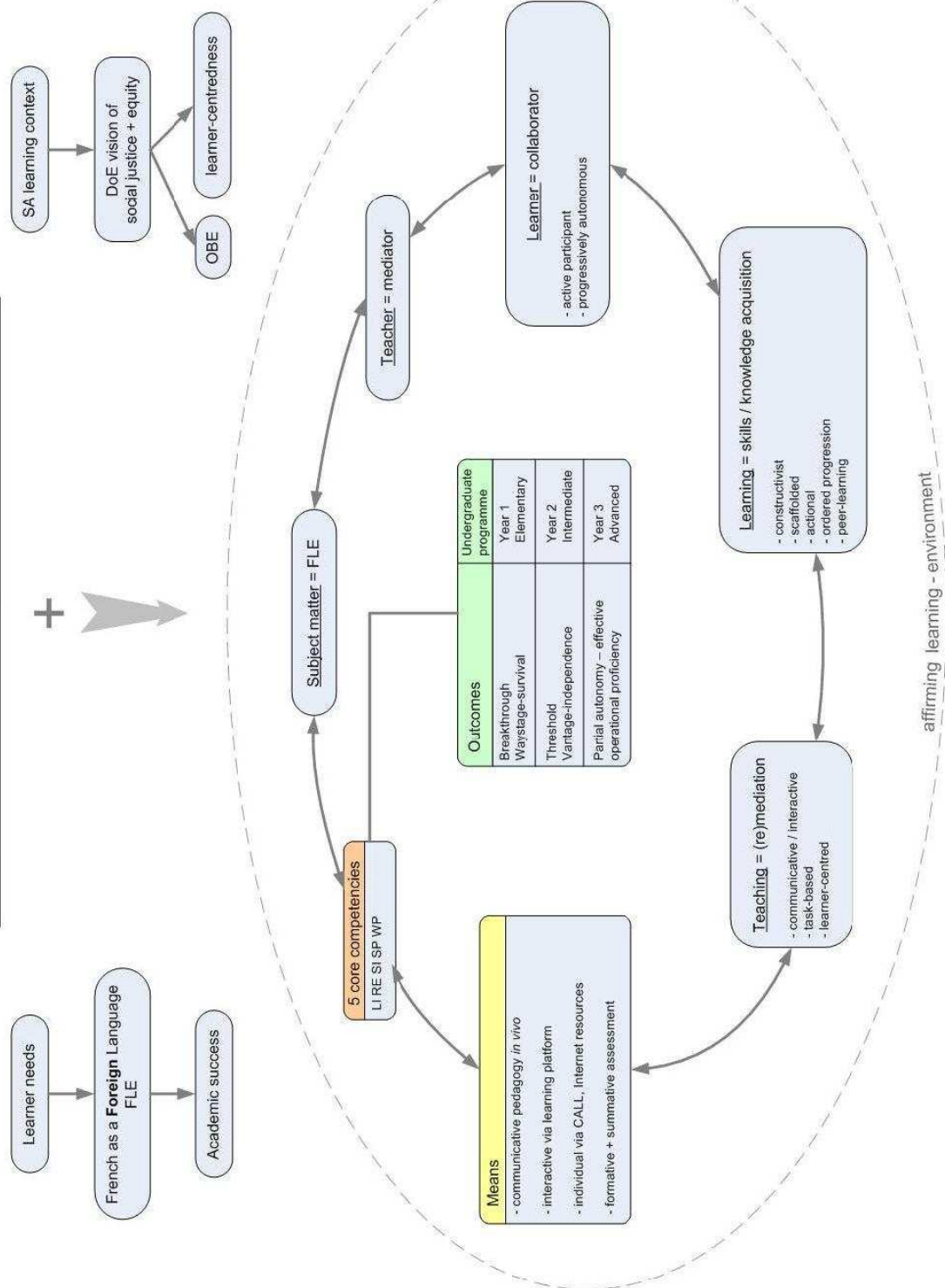
Conclusion

The aim of this study was to explore the assumption that the teaching of French as it currently exists at South African universities is in need of reform. Therefore, in Part One, I sought first to establish an overview of foreign-language teaching from earliest times to the end of the twentieth century in an attempt to understand the traditions and influences which have informed the practice of teaching French over the years. In Part Two, I proceeded to examine critically the current nature and manner of teaching French at South African tertiary institutions in order to ascertain whether there was indeed need for reform and, if so, which aspects of that teaching required transformation. I established that, despite university-specific differences, there exist certain commonalities. For the most part, by failing to acknowledge that on South African university campuses French is a foreign language, university teachers of French dispense courses and frequently use instructivist methodologies which, in many respects, cater better for French mother-tongue, or first-language speakers and ignore the specificities of foreign-language teaching by confusing academic and pedagogical objectives. Secondly, it emerged that courses in French offered by South African universities lack homogeneity, not as a function of disparate learner needs and differing situational contexts, but rather, I would maintain, because of what can be perceived to be that reluctance to abandon long-held practice which can persist when there is inherited institutional autonomy. It is a heterogeneity which can, I believe, be construed as an obstacle to student mobility and as an indicator of imperfect quality, insofar as it attests to an eclectic arbitrariness, dependent more on individual academics' fields of interest than on student needs and appropriate practice. Indeed, it was observed that, in general terms, academic staff members engaged in teaching French appear to have given limited attention to evolving learning theories and stand with one foot in the past, accepting inconsistencies in subject matter, *modus operandi* and methods of assessment. These aspects are summarised pictorially in the flowchart on the following page. I concluded, therefore, that the discipline requires refashioning along coherent and pedagogically-informed lines.



In Part Three of the thesis, I proposed a model for the teaching of French as a foreign language (*FLE*), which could be adopted across-the-board by South African universities and which is depicted in the flowchart on page 245. In this, I have relied on the notion of core competences, of a constructivist-scaffolded, task-based learning process articulated around the scales and reference-level descriptions advocated by the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages*. This three-tiered model comprises elementary, intermediate and advanced levels, implemented across six semesters of undergraduate study; each is both a self-contained academic unit with internal coherence and value, and a stage in a logically-designed undergraduate programme of study, with learners graduating from breakthrough to survival, from threshold to independence, and thence to partial autonomy in the language. In its conception, it recognises the specificities of foreign-language teaching: the student is reassured by an affirming learning-environment, is assisted by appropriate means and assessment techniques and, collaborator and active participant, and becomes progressively more responsible for his apprenticeship of the language. In this, teaching-learning strategies are learner-centred and outcomes-based: five core competences are clearly targeted at each stage of the learning process and achievement is measured in terms of tasks. Further, learner-centred course content, ordered progressively in a move towards greater linguistic autonomy, is topical and relevant.

Proposed Model for Teaching French at SA Universities



The particular originality of this model resides in the approach adopted for the teaching of literary texts. Literature finds its true place within a wider educational enterprise: as a pedagogical support for the teaching of language at undergraduate level, it seeks to develop in the learner greater linguistic mastery and creative language usage. Through the implementation of a cross-cultural approach to literary texts, the model is designed so that the university teacher of *FLE* can foster in the student critical awareness of self, sensitivity towards others, and an appreciation of cultural diversity as a source, not of conflict, but of richness. Further, the originality of the literature-teaching pedagogy and curriculum resides in its implementation of the 1997 initiative to introduce outcomes-based education and Curriculum 2005. At its heart is a set of values linked to social justice, human rights, equity and development, as well as a learner-centred approach towards teaching and learning. In general terms, I have advocated a broad range of pedagogical activities, since this eclectic approach allows for the best techniques of all methods to be absorbed, and used when appropriate. To a certain extent, the varied pedagogical activities and supports envisaged for the new model resonate with aspects of Blended Learning or Hybrid/ Mixed Learning.

I contend that adoption of this model would facilitate inter-institutional mobility of students and staff alike, promote international recognition of the validity of qualifications in French awarded by South African universities, and could, therefore, add value to South African university degrees. In this regard, university-based intellectuals who participate in curriculum review and contribute to policies of curriculum revision should debate the implementation of a *Southern African Language Portfolio* which, like its European counterpart, could help standardise notions of linguistic competence and so aid professional mobility, while fostering lifelong language-learning within Sub-Saharan Africa. Clearly, multilingualism and multicultural societies within Southern Africa are, in themselves, a source of great human richness. More than this, they can signify the potential for economic growth, providing that cooperative ventures within the sub-continent are strengthened by formal, shared instruments for recording skills levels. Whilst it is entirely appropriate to promote national languages and to encourage actively multilingualism with all its attendant advantages, such an approach should not signify a reduction in the teaching and promotion of non-national languages such as French. There need be no

dichotomy. Indeed, the greater the awareness of the desirability of being able to communicate in languages other than one's mother tongue, the greater will be the numbers of language learners. Further, viewed from an ideological standpoint, were South African universities to adopt jointly a shared language policy, they would be better positioned to produce the next generation of young elite capable not only of reinforcing but also of extending South Africa's current position as the economic powerhouse, negotiator and peace-broker of the continent. Such a policy would reflect the need for language requirements at least within Humanities, Arts and Social Science Faculties, and could also signal the advisability for professional reasons of some language knowledge for all areas of study on a continent where the *lingua franca* is French for numerically more than half of the continent's total population.

In proposing this model for the teaching of French as a foreign language at South African universities, I am in no way advocating that those institutions of higher learning be reduced to narrow functionality. I suggest rather that undergraduate French in South Africa be understood for what it rightly is - a foreign language which enables communication with other human beings- and that it should be taught as such. Although I have not been able to implement the proposed model throughout the undergraduate programme in French, certain aspects have been introduced and, despite the limited timeframe that has elapsed since their introduction, it is possible to attest to the feasibility of those aspects of the model. From this, it is clearly not possible to conclude that all aspects of the model will work in practice; I suggest, therefore, that the model be the subject of future effectiveness research. Meanwhile, the time has come for teachers of French at South African universities to abandon the old ways and embrace the new by teaching French as a foreign language to their undergraduate students and so prepare them better to understand and deal intelligently with modern life.

ANNEXURES

Annexure 1: Example of an intermediate-level (B2) literature module using a cross-cultural approach.....	250
Annexure 2: Example of an advanced-level literature module using a cross-cultural approach.....	265
Annexure 3: Linguistic Objectives for A1 & A2 levels.....	288
Annexure 4: Linguistic Objectives for B1 & B2 levels.....	291
Annexure 5: Genesis of the <i>Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR)</i>	293
Annexure 6: Reference Level Descriptions for the <i>Common European Framework of Reference for Languages</i>	296
Annexure 7: Continuous Assessment – Results.....	298
Annexure 8: Continuous Assessment – results in %.....	299
Annexure 9: Continuous Assessment Student Comments.....	300
Annexure 10: Example of a Pedagogical Activity using Open Questions.....	302
Annexure 11: Test Format for Listening Comprehension Skills at Advanced Level.....	307
Annexure 12: Business French - Initial hand-out for advanced level third year language course.....	309
Annexure 13: Business French – Course content for 3 rd year.....	311
Annexure 14: Pedagogical Activity for Business French (compiled for use with a TV clip recorded from <i>TV5Monde</i>):.....	319
Annexure 15: Contract School of Languages & Literatures French Section.....	322
Annexure 16: Mundus Masters Programme.....	323
Annexure 17: Table of nationalities for student enrolments per Faculty at the University of Cape Town, 2003-2005.....	324
Annexure 18: Staff – Student Numbers in the Section of French, University of Cape Town, decade 1995 – 2005.....	330
Annexure 19: Questionnaire & accompanying e-mail sent to South African institutions of higher learning which offer French.....	331
Annexure 20: Textbooks and Teaching Aids.....	335

Annexure 1

Example of an intermediate-level (B2) literature module using a cross-cultural approach

1. Anticipation

The following information¹, containing practical information but also designed to create the desire in the learner to read the prescribed literary text and in the form of a bookmark, is distributed to all students one week before the start of the module.

- Sebti, F. *Moi Mireille, lorsque j'étais Yasmina*,
Editions Le Fennec : Casablanca, 1995
(ISBN 9981-838-21-7)**
1. Comment se procurer le livre?
Il a été mis en réserve à la bibliothèque où
vous pouvez le consulter
OU BIEN
*Vous pouvez le commander auprès de
amazon.com.*
 2. Le cours sur *Mireille* commence le mardi 15
juillet. Vous aurez 2 cours par semaine (le
mardi et le vendredi à 10h00 en A202) du 15
juillet jusqu'au 12 août; ensuite vous
enchaînez avec *Ubu* et puis la poésie.
 3. *Procurez-vous un cahier dont vous vous
servirez pour tous les exercices que vous ferez
sur Mireille.* (Il n'y aura **pas de dissertation
littéraire** à rédiger mais il y aura par contre
plusieurs devoirs que vous écrirez dans votre
cahier).
 4. **AVANT** de lire le récit *Mireille*, vous ferez
l'exercice suivant dans votre cahier. C'est
l'étape préalable à l'étude du texte
proprement dite; pour ce faire, il ne s'agit pas
de faire des recherches; il s'agit de faire appel
aux connaissances que vous possédez déjà et
de donner des réponses **personnelles**.
- Devoir 1 :**
- L'auteur de *Moi Mireille, lorsque j'étais
Yasmina* est une avocate marocaine. *Que
savez-vous du Maroc? Quelles sont vos
impressions de ce pays? (Vous pouvez
inclure des détails historiques,
géographiques, culturelles, linguistiques
et autres).*
 - **Avant** d'avoir lu l'ouvrage et tout en
tenant compte de son titre, vous êtes-vous
déjà fait une idée de quoi il s'agit?
Expliquez.

¹ As indicated in footnote 132, page 238, it is important to be consistent in the use of an italic font and the imperative form to indicate to the learner which text constitutes instructions and information; this is an aid to refining learner comprehension.

In addition, the following handout is distributed to students. It contains explicit, introductory information of a practical nature designed to dissipate learner confusion, as well as details on methodology and course outcomes, which are intended to provide a framework for the learning-teaching experience, and to guide the students in their interaction with the text.

2. Remarques d'introduction:

Moi Mireille, lorsque j'étais Yasmina

de Fadéla Sebti

Autrui est secret parce qu'il est autre

Jacques Derrida, *Le Monde de l'éducation*, septembre 2000

- Les cours auront tous lieu en A215.
- Vous aurez cours les 13, 14, 15, 16, 21, 23, 28 et 30 juillet, ainsi que les 04 et 06 août.
- Dès que le seuil de la salle de cours sera franchi, *vous ne parlerez que français même si vous arrivez en avance et que vous bavardez avec vos collègues.*
- Il y aura du travail préparatoire à faire pour chaque cours. Il est essentiel de faire ce travail si vous voulez tirer un maximum de profit de ce cours de littérature car ce n'est pas un cours de prise de notes où le professeur vous dicte pendant que vous en prenez note ; c'est par contre un cours basé sur un document authentique (en l'occurrence un texte littéraire plutôt qu'une publicité ou qu'un article de presse.) où **l'objectif est l'apprentissage de la langue française**. En même temps, l'approche méthodologique vous aidera à **vous connaître mieux** et à **découvrir l'autre**.
- Chaque activité se fera en petits sous groupes avant de procéder à l'étape "mise en commun". Dans la mesure du possible, il y aura un(e) Francophone par groupe.
- Cette façon de procéder exigera de vous, en tant qu'apprenants, de la discipline et du sérieux.

- Le travail préparatoire se fera dans le cahier que vous vous serez déjà procuré : *respectez la double interligne, soignez la présentation, soyez-en fiers! Et profitez-en au maximum!*
- A la fin du cours, vous serez capable:
 - *de travailler et de débattre collégalement avec vos pairs,*
 - *de comprendre un ouvrage littéraire contemporain et les problèmes sociétaux d'actualité qu'il évoque,*
 - *de vous exprimer avec fluidité et spontanéité sur des problèmes de société et d'argumenter pour justifier votre opinion,*
 - *d'expliquer votre point de vue ainsi que les points forts et faibles d'autres prises de position,*
 - *de rédiger un compte rendu portant sur des problèmes sociétaux*
 - *de rédiger une lettre personnelle*
 - *de rédiger un texte dans lequel vous faites clairement ressortir la signification d'une expérience ou d'événements vécus ou imaginés.*

En plus,

- *vous vous connaîtrez mieux, et*
- *vous comprendrez mieux les autres.*

3. Méthode d'évaluation

Contrôle continu:

Participation en cours et travail fourni dans le cadre du module : 50 points

Production de fin de module (dont le détail est à la fin de la photocopie): 50 points

Total des points: 100

Here follows the course handout for the complete module:

**SLL261S – COURS DE LITTÉRATURE les mardi et vendredi à 10h00 du 15
juillet au 12 août en A202**

Moi Mireille, lorsque j'étais Yasmina de Fadéla Sebti

1. Animation

Échanges personnels sur les réponses évoquées par les questions de la marque-page.

2. Compréhension globale

Répondez aux questions suivantes sur l'intrigue du récit:

1. De quelle nationalité est Mireille?

.....

2. Quel prénom adopte-t-elle?

.....

3. À quel moment change-t-elle de prénom? Et pourquoi?

.....

.....

..

4. Comment s'appellent son mari et ses enfants? Quel âge ont ces derniers au moment où l'action principale se déroule?

.....

.....

..

5. Où, en quel mois et en quelle année rencontre-t-elle son mari pour la première fois? Quelles études fait-elle au moment de cette rencontre? Les termine-t-elle? Pourquoi?

.....

.....

.....

...

6. Quand va-t-elle au Maroc pour la première fois? Où est-elle hébergée? Pourquoi?

.....

.....

7. Comment s'appellent les différents membres de sa belle-famille?

.....

.....

..

8. Donnez 2 détails précis sur chacune des belles-sœurs de Mireille.

8.1.....

.

8.2.....

.

8.3.....

.

8.4.....

.

Comment s'appelle l'épouse française de l'oncle du mari de Mireille? Qu'est-ce qui lui arrive?

.....

.....

9. Où le mari de Mireille est-il scolarisé et pourquoi? Quels éléments caractérisent son enfance et son adolescence?

.....

.....

.....

...

10. Comment Mireille réagit-elle quand elle voit le livret de famille pour la première fois? Pourquoi?

.....

.....

..

11. Comment la belle-mère de Mireille se comporte-t-elle envers son petit-fils? Pourquoi?

.....

.....

.

.....

.....

12. À partir de quel moment est-ce que Mireille commence à avoir des doutes concernant son couple? Qu'est-ce qui provoque ces doutes chez elle?

.....

.....

..

13. À quel moment, comment et pourquoi la crise éclate-t-elle dans le couple de Mireille? Quelles en sont les conséquences pour elle?

.....

.....

.....

.....

14. Pourquoi Mireille ne s'en va-t-elle pas?

.....

.....

..

15. Dans le dixième chapitre du récit, Mireille constate qu'elle apprend à être deux.
D'après vous, dans quel sens est-elle deux?

.....

.....

..

16. C'est aussi dans le courant du chapitre 10 que Mireille avoue qu'elle déteste sa
belle-sœur. Pourquoi cette haine? Et en quoi est-elle ironique?

.....

.....

..

17. Quel est le tout dernier geste de Mireille? Dans quelle mesure constitue-t-il un
acte de révolte? L'aviez-vous prévu? Existe-t-il des signes précurseurs? Son
époux comprend-il son geste? Pourquoi?

.....

.....

.....

.....

....

18. Combien de narrateurs y a-t-il dans *Moi Mireille, lorsque j'étais Yasmina*?
Nommez-les.

.....

19. En quoi le prologue et l'épilogue sont-ils différents du reste du texte? À votre avis, pourquoi Fadéla Sebti crée-t-elle cette différence?

.....
.....
..

3. Compréhension détaillée

En sous-groupe de 3, ou en tandem, et avant de procéder à une mise en commun, comparez vos réponses aux questions suivantes:

Enfance – rêves d'enfance et sentiment d'isolement (pp 14-17)

Qui vous a marqué(e) pendant votre enfance? et de quelle façon?

Quels rêves avez-vous nourris en tant qu'enfant?

Racontez un épisode à l'école où vous vous êtes senti(e) étranger/étrangère.

Le manque de communication (pp 22-24) et la peur (pp 33-35)

Racontez un épisode de votre vie où vous vous êtes senti(e) frustré(e), inférieur(e) ou supérieur(e) par rapport à la langue que vous parliez.

En quoi la maîtrise d'une langue est-elle importante?

Mireille raconte sa peur, celle de mourir en terre étrangère : de quoi avez-vous peur? Quelle sensation ressentez-vous lorsque vous êtes en proie à la peur?

La foi religieuse (pp 25-29) et les pratiques religieuses (p 32)

Interview : interviewez un(e) musulman(e) pratiquant(e). Renseignez-vous sur le Ramadan : pourquoi, quand et comment fait-on le Ramadan?

Donnez le détail d'une fête importante pratiquée par une religion autre que l'Islam.

Avez-vous assisté à un baptême? Si oui, décrivez-le ; si non, renseignez-vous sur le baptême de quelqu'un de votre famille ou parmi vos connaissances. En quoi ce baptême est-il différent de celui de Mehdi?

Le stéréotype (pp 18-22, 52)

“ (...) [L]e terme “Arabe” regroupait pêle-mêle tout ce qui était un peu basané et frisé.” (19) *Reformulez cette phrase en remplaçant le mot “Arabe” par un autre groupe ethnique.*

Mireille, très en colère, fait preuve de forts préjugés et se réfugie dans des stéréotypes (p 52). *Écrivez un petit paragraphe où vous faites le portrait **soit** du/de la Français(e) **soit** du/de la Sud-Africain(e) moyen(ne) type.*

Selon vous, sur quoi le stéréotype repose-t-il?

“Savoir ménager son homme/sa femme” (pp 62-69)

Salima se lance dans une liste des choses à faire et à ne pas faire dans la situation de Mireille. *Rétablissez cette liste (ex Rentrer, faire comme si de rien n’était etc). Maintenant, refaites la liste telle que Salima la ferait si elle **donnait des conseils** à Nadir pour “ménager sa femme”.*

La philosophe existentialiste Simone de Beauvoir dans *Le Deuxième Sexe* décrit l’activité de “ménager son homme” comme “une triste science” : *qu’est-ce que vous comprenez par là?*

Les mariages mixtes (pp 30-33)

Quels conseils donneriez-vous à un couple mixte pour élever leurs enfants?

4. Repérage

*Ecoutez l’enregistrement de l’entretien conduit par Serge Ménager avec Fadéla Sebti, auteur de **Moi Mireille, lorsque j’étais Yasmina**, et répondez aux questions à choix multiple suivantes:*

Cochez la/les bonne(s) réponse(s) :

1. Quelle est la seule manière de Fadéla Sebti de contribuer à l’amélioration de la condition de la femme?
 - a de lire entre les lignes
 - b de jouer
 - c de se battre au sein d’une association de femmes
 - d de faire connaître le droit
2. D’après Fadéla Sebti, de quoi est-on accusé quand on essaie de faire évoluer le droit dans un pays musulman?
 - a de ne pas être musulmane
 - b de faire un faux pas
 - c d’éviter des taxes
 - d de renier sa religion

3. Selon l'interviewer, qu'est-ce que les femmes marocaines qui veulent promouvoir des réformes, essaient de montrer?
- a qu'il faut prendre grand soin
 - b que ce n'est pas l'Islam qui est fautif
 - c qu'il ne faut pas se faire taxer d'athéisme
 - d que l'Islam a été détourné par et au profit des hommes
4. Selon le Code du Statut Personnel, quand est-ce que le juge ne doit pas autoriser la polygamie?
- a s'il y a une inégalité à craindre entre les épouses
 - b si les épouses ne sont pas assez nombreuses
 - c si ce n'est pas subjectif
 - d si les épouses sont égales
5. Pourquoi ne peut-il pas y avoir d'égalité entre les épouses?
- a c'est objectif
 - b c'est subjectif
 - c il y a un attrait plus fort de la part du mari pour l'une des épouses que pour les autres
 - d il y a un attrait plus fort de la part de la femme pour l'un des époux
6. Dans quelles circonstances le Prophète condamne-t-il la polygamie?
- a en cas d'égalité des époux
 - b en cas d'égalité des épouses
 - c en cas d'inégalité des époux
 - d en cas d'inégalité des épouses
7. En Tunisie
- a la répudiation n'existe guère
 - b la répudiation et le divorce judiciaire existent
 - c la répudiation n'existe plus
 - d le divorce judiciaire existe
8. Comment s'intitule le premier livre de Fadéla Sebti?
- a *Moi Mireille, lorsque j'étais Yasmina*
 - b *Vivre musulmane au Maroc*
 - c *Mon petit bébé chéri*
 - d *Répertoire de la législation marocaine*

9. Dans ce livre de combien de textes légaux s'agit-il?
- a 100
 - b 500
 - c 700
 - d 900
10. Comment est-ce que les textes légaux sont classés dans ce livre?
- a par thème
 - b par ordre chronologique
 - c par ordre alphabétique
 - d par ordre logique
11. Comment s'appelle le deuxième livre que Fadéla Sebti a rédigé?
- a *Répertoire de la législation marocaine*
 - b *Vivre musulmane au Maroc*
 - c *Moi Mireille, lorsque j'étais Yasmina*
 - d *Répertoire de la législation musulmane (suite)*
12. À quel besoin son deuxième livre répond-il?
- a à celui des femmes qui ne se connaissent pas
 - b à celui des femmes qui ne connaissent pas assez d'hommes
 - c à celui des femmes qui ne connaissent pas bien leur famille
 - d à celui des femmes qui ne connaissent pas leurs droits
13. Pour son roman, Fadéla Sebti prend un thème en relation avec
- a le droit
 - b les droits
 - c l'expérience
 - d la tentation
14. D'après l'interviewer, en quoi l'originalité de ce roman réside-t-elle?
- a une femme française écrit un roman dont l'héroïne n'est pas une Française mais une Marocaine
 - b une femme marocaine écrit un roman dont l'héroïne n'est pas une Française mais une Marocaine
 - c une femme française écrit un roman dont l'héroïne n'est pas une Marocaine mais une Française
 - d une femme marocaine écrit un roman dont l'héroïne n'est pas une Marocaine mais une Française

15. Quel(s) terme(s) l'héroïne emploie-t-elle pour décrire le peuple marocain?
- a un ramassis de sous-humanité
 - b une sous-race
 - c des souris
 - d souriant
16. D'après l'interviewer, pourquoi l'héroïne souffre-t-elle d'un gros complexe?
- a parce qu'elle est issue de la haute bourgeoisie
 - b parce qu'elle est née dans la classe ouvrière
 - c parce qu'elle voudrait s'inscrire dans une grande famille bourgeoise marocaine
 - d parce qu'elle a du mal à s'inscrire dans une grande famille bourgeoise marocaine
17. Pourquoi, d'après l'écrivaine, une héroïne marocaine aurait-elle été moins révoltée qu'une Française face à la répudiation?
- a la répudiation fait partie de la vie marocaine
 - b la répudiation ne fait pas partie de la vie française
 - c à cause de son niveau intellectuel
 - d à cause de son degré d'évolution
18. Comment l'héroïne française se révolte-t-elle?
- a moins qu'une Marocaine
 - b mieux qu'une Marocaine
 - c plus qu'une Marocaine
 - d à l'instar d'une Marocaine
19. L'écrivaine décrit la manière dont se passe la répudiation dans "de petits boxes" dans le quartier des Habbous, à Casablanca, "au vu et au su de tout le monde", comme étant
- a proprement épouvantable
 - b propre
 - c barbare
 - d berbère
20. Pourquoi l'écrivaine décide-t-elle d'éliminer physiquement son héroïne?
- a parce que, moralement, celle-ci ne vit déjà plus que comme un légume
 - b parce que celle-ci ne supporte plus rien
 - c parce que celle-ci se retrouve seule
 - d parce que celle-ci est très intellectuelle

Mise en commun

5. Conceptualisation

- **Jeu de rôle (pp 36-40) Les rapports personnels**

A deux, choisissez l'un des jeux de rôle suivants, préparez-le et jouez-le.

Salima et Nadir. Salima parle à son frère, Nadir, au sujet de son épouse, Mireille, avec qui elle s'entend mal ; Nadir essaie de la raisonner.

OU

Mireille et son ami(e). Mireille reçoit la visite de son ami(e) français(e) qui est de passage à Casablanca. Mireille se plaint de sa belle-sœur, Salima ; son ami(e) lui donne des conseils.

- **Dialogue (pp 41-45, 55-59) Rendez-vous chez le/la conseiller/conseillère conjugal(e).** Mireille et Nadir s'y rendent séparément : comment Nadir résume-t-il leurs rapports de couple ? Et Mireille, quelle en est sa version à elle ? *A trois, imaginez les 2 dialogues et rédigez-les.*
- **Lettre (pp 70-72, 74-77) La répudiation, le divorce.** Nadir "se cache" derrière le jargon juridique lorsqu'il explique à Mireille les conditions légales de la répudiation. Mireille écrit à un(e) ami(e) en France une lettre où elle lui fait part de ce que c'est une répudiation et en quoi elle diffère du divorce. *Rédigez la lettre de Mireille.*
- **Présentation orale (pp 85-6, 92, 95, 100) - Intervention de 5-7 minutes sur la position de la femme**

Au sein de votre communauté vous présidez un comité dont le but est de protéger et de défendre les droits de la femme. Lors d'un congrès qui se tient à Casablanca vous êtes invité(e) à faire une intervention où vous parlez de la position de la femme en Afrique du Sud. Préparez l'intervention chez vous. En cours, mettez-vous par trois et faites votre présentation à tour de rôle.
- **Compte-rendu. De retour en Afrique du Sud le comité que vous présidez vous demande de faire le compte-rendu de votre séjour à Casablanca. En tandem, rédigez un compte-rendu de deux paragraphes où vous discutez de la position de la femme marocaine et où vous évoquez les éventuels problèmes qui sont partagés par toutes les femmes du monde quelle que soit leur origine.**

6. Systématisation

La consigne vous sera donnée en cours.

Reproduction in reduced font of the transparency of a simulation exercise for *Moi Mireille, lorsque j'étais Yasmina*:

SIMULATION (point de départ pp 33-35)

Mettez-vous par sept et jouez la scène ci-dessous. (Si vous n'êtes pas sept, l'un de vous peut jouer plusieurs rôles de comparse).

DRAMATIS PERSONAE :

Lalla

Mireille

Nadir

Salima

Farouk

Shama

Boubker

Chez Salima. Le premier jour du Ramadan peu avant le coucher du soleil. La famille est invitée chez Salima et Farouk.

Scène 1 :

Tout le monde arrive un peu avant la rupture du jeûne. Salima les reçoit dans la salle à manger/salle de séjour. Tous, à l'exception de Lalla et de Mireille, s'approchent de la table pour contempler avec délice ce que Salima leur a préparé, laissant Lalla et Mireille seules. Lalla demande à Mireille de lui confier Mehdi (6 ans) pour la nuit sacrée du 26^e jour du Ramadan. Cette dernière refuse.

Scène 2 :

Plus tard (après la rupture du jeûne). Shama et Mireille aident Salima à débarrasser la table et l'accompagnent dans la cuisine. Lalla profite de leur absence pour parler à son fils et à ses gendres du refus de Mireille. Chacun donne son opinion.

Scène 3 :

Les femmes reviennent de la cuisine ; l'ambiance est très tendue, il y a une atmosphère de gêne. C'est Nadir qui explique pourquoi. Salima soutient sa belle-mère mais Shama se rallie au côté de Mireille.

7. Production

Devoir à rendre le 22 août 2003 (50 points)

En fonction de l'intrigue de *Moi Mireille*, lorsque j'étais Yasmina et en rétablissant la chronologie des événements² les plus décisifs de la vie de Mireille OU de Nadir, rédigez le journal intime soit de Mireille soit de Nadir. Votre journal intime comportera une entrée qui correspondra à chaque événement principal de la vie du personnage. Remettez-moi la version brouillon le 15 août pour que je puisse vous signaler les éventuelles fautes de langue qu'il faudrait corriger avant de me soumettre votre version finale.

Attribution des points:

- | | |
|---|-----------|
| – Respect de la consigne | 5 points |
| – Créativité | 15 points |
| – Respect de la chronologie du récit, faisant preuve de compréhension du texte | 5 points |
| – Correction de la langue (accords, genres, temps verbaux, formes verbales, prépositions, pronoms, orthographe) | 15 points |
| – Fluidité de l'expression | 5 points |
| – Qualité de la présentation | 5 points |

Total des points: 50

8. Feedback

The feedback pertaining to each individual assignment will be detailed (see page 93 of Part Three). Students are invited to make appointments to see me individually, should they have queries concerning the feedback on their assignment. During the last fifteen minutes of the final contact period, I invite students to participate in small-group feedback of a general nature, prior to collective feedback discussions, by using the following questions:

9. Bilan

Mettez-vous en sous-groupe de 3 et répondez aux questions suivantes :

- ***Vous avez maintenant lu et analysé le récit *Moi Mireille*, lorsque j'étais Yasmina. Dites si l'idée que vous vous étiez faite du Maroc avant d'aborder le texte, a changé et en quoi réside ce changement.***
- ***À la suite de la lecture du texte, identifiez les sentiments que vous éprouvez envers Mireille/Yasmina, Nadir et les autres personnages.***

² With reference to using 'récits de vie' as pedagogical activities, De Carlo suggests that "l'accent serait moins mis sur l'enchaînement des événements que sur les sentiments de rapprochement ou d'éloignement qu'ils [les apprenants] ressentent vis-à-vis de leur environnement familial et social" (1998: 97). However, I consider that asking students to respect the chronology of narrated events is a useful means of improving and evaluating reading comprehension.

- *Si vous pouviez leur parler, qu'est-ce que vous leur diriez?*
- *Si vous pouviez interviewer l'écrivaine, quelles 5 questions lui poseriez-vous?*
 1.
 2.
 3.
 4.
 5.

10. Pour aller plus loin ...

*Lisez le document ci-dessous. Trouvez dans **Moi Mireille, lorsque j'étais Yasmina** des exemples des techniques stylistiques qui y sont mentionnées. Réfléchissez à l'utilisation de ces techniques : d'après vous, à quel point leur utilisation contribue-t-elle à la lisibilité et au plaisir que vous avez pu ressentir en lisant le texte ? Connaissez-vous d'autres techniques stylistiques ? Si oui, lesquelles ?*

11. Démarche romanesque - techniques stylistiques :

- **narration à la première personne** (3 narrateurs – Mireille, Nadir – en italique, Prologue II & Épilogue, narrateur anonyme – dénouement)
 - l'auteur crée une certaine distance entre lui-même et ses personnages ; objectivité – ce n'est pas l'auteur qui raconte la vie de ses personnages mais eux qui s'adressent directement au lecteur
 - permet au lecteur de s'identifier mieux et de façon plus intime avec les personnages, de vivre avec eux leurs joies et leurs peines
 - l'utilisation de plus d'un narrateur permet au lecteur de voir les événements qui sont racontés, sous plusieurs angles
- **retour en arrière** (flashback) où les personnages remontent dans le passé et revivent certains événements qui les ont marqués
 - permet au lecteur de connaître le passé des divers personnages et de mieux comprendre ainsi leur comportement, leurs réactions, la façon dont ils font face à certaines situations.
- **arabo-francophonie** - l'utilisation de certains mots arabes qui sont propres au contexte maghrébin
 - confère de l'authenticité à la narration
 - permet au lecteur de mieux se placer dans l'espace culturel de la narration

Annexure 2
Example of an advanced-level literature module using a cross-cultural approach

SLL3060F

***Un jour, l'Alcyon...* de Lina Moulay, EDDIF : Casablanca, 1996**

Neuf cours, les lundi, mercredi et vendredi à 11h00 à partir du lundi 20 février jusqu'au 9 mars 2006

Ce cours a pour objectif de:

- vous donner un premier aperçu de la fiction marocaine contemporaine féminine, et, en ce faisant, de vous aider à perfectionner votre compréhension écrite,
- vous encourager à avoir une réflexion personnelle sur divers thèmes qui parcourent un exemple de cette littérature et qui peuvent aussi exister dans le monde tel que vous le connaissez,
- vous donner l'occasion de vous exprimer sur ces thèmes et donc de perfectionner votre français parlé et écrit,
- et, par conséquent, de vous connaître mieux tout en allant vers la découverte de l'Autre.

1. Animation

- *A trois, regardez le titre et l'illustration sur la couverture du livre : d'après vous, de quoi s'agit-il dans ce recueil de nouvelles ?*
- *A trois, faites la lecture active³ d'“Un écrivain à l'affût” (pp 9-11) qui fait office de prologue au recueil de nouvelles.*

Mise en commun

2. Compréhension globale

Mettez-vous en sous-groupes de 3 et répondez aux questions suivantes:

“L'aigrette de sénéçon” pp. 87-92.

— La misère

Relevez tous les détails qui vous font comprendre que la petite fille vit dans la misère. Pourquoi est-elle si pauvre ? Dans quels pays est-ce que la misère constitue un véritable fléau ? Quelles en sont les causes et les conséquences ?

³ Not only does this pedagogical activity arouse in the learner the desire to discover the text in its entirety but it also favours a metalinguistic reflexion in that students are asked to employ comprehension techniques that they have already encountered in the module 'Introduction to Translation' (Part Three, pp72-73).

“Chicago 2” pp. 105-109.

- La vie en bidonville.

Pour vous, quels adjectifs qualifient le mieux la vraie nature de Chicago 2? Comment comprenez-vous le titre de la nouvelle? Vous êtes-vous jamais aventuré(e) dans un bidonville? Est-ce qu’il y en a au Cap? Comment y vit-on?

“Le rossignol de l’Atlas” pp. 119-122.

- *Qu’est-ce que vous comprenez par le titre? D’après vous, est-il bien choisi? Pourquoi?*

- “La maladie est un luxe” (120).

Qui est-ce qui fait cette constatation? Dans quelle mesure s’applique-t-elle à l’Afrique du Sud?

- La mendicité.

Qui est-ce qui se met à mendier et pourquoi? Lorsqu’un mendiant vous approche, la main tendue, comment réagissez-vous? Pourquoi? Comment vous sentez-vous?

“Piments rouges sur murs blancs” pp. 123-125.

- Malentendus linguistiques:

Dites dans quel sens Fouad comprend mal la tournure de phrase “rester aveugle comme une taupe”. Quelle en est la conséquence? Vous est-il arrivé de mal comprendre un mot, une expression? Dites dans quelles circonstances cela s’est produit.

- La scolarité :

Qu’est-ce qui motive Fouad à terminer sa scolarité? Avez-vous connu des instituteurs/institutrices qui se servaient de leur position d’autorité au lieu d’affronter franchement leurs problèmes? Lesquels? Qu’est-ce qui vous a poussé(e) à apprendre lorsque vous fréquentez l’école primaire/secondaire? Et maintenant?

3. Compréhension détaillée

Mettez-vous en sous-groupe de 3 et réfléchissez ensemble aux questions suivantes:

“La bague de thuya” (pp. 17-23).

La folie (pp. 19, 21)

- *Qu’est-ce que vous comprenez par la folie? Comment la définissez-vous?*
- *D’après vous, comment la société en général réagit-elle envers les fous? Et les gens de votre entourage?*

- *Avez-vous déjà eu le sentiment de devenir fou/folle? À quel moment? Pourquoi? Quelle(s) sensation(s) avez-vous ressentie(s)? En avez-vous parlé à quelqu'un? Explicitiez.*

La déception amoureuse (p. 21)

- *Avez-vous déjà vraiment aimé quelqu'un? Si oui, essayez de décrire votre amour. Si non, espérez-vous un jour connaître la grande passion? Est-ce que vous l'attendez avec impatience ou l'appréhendez-vous un peu?*
- *Avez-vous déjà connu la déception amoureuse? Si non, comment vous l'imaginez-vous? Si oui, comment l'avez-vous vécue?*

Techniques littéraires

- *Quelles sont les techniques littéraires que Lina Moulay utilise pour véhiculer son message et que vous pouvez employer, vous, quand vous écrivez?*

“La seconde épouse” (pp. 51-65).

Rapports mère / fille / père / fils (pp. 52-53, 59)

- *Qu'est-ce que vous avez appris aux côtés de votre mère/père?*
- *Est-ce que quelqu'un vous a expliqué la nature des rapports sexuels? Qui? À quel moment? Comment y avez-vous réagi? À qui incombe-t-il d'informer les jeunes des relations sexuelles?*

Cérémonie de mariage (pp. 53-57)

- *Avez-vous déjà assisté à une cérémonie de mariage? Faites-en la description. Si non, renseignez-vous sur les noces d'un(e) parent(e) ou d'un(e) ami(e). Dans quelle mesure cette cérémonie diffère-t-elle du mariage de Latifa?*

L'importance de la virginité (pp. 55, 59-60)

- *Dans la société marocaine la virginité de la jeune mariée est hautement prisée. Comment la virginité est-elle perçue en Afrique du Sud? Et qu'en pensez-vous?*

La polygamie (pp. 61-62)

- *Comment la polygamie est-elle perçue en Afrique du Sud*
- *“Isidingo”, feuilleton télévisé sud-africain, traite de la polygamie: sous quel angle?*

“Le fils tant désiré” (p. 64)

- *D'après vous, les fils sont-ils plus prisés que les filles par certaines populations sud-africaines? Pourquoi?*

L'alternance des codes (pp. 51-63)

- *Lina Moulay alterne beaucoup les codes dans cette nouvelle. À votre avis, pourquoi le fait-elle?*

- *L’alternance des codes est également un phénomène sud-africain; donnez-en des exemples concrets. Pourquoi les gens alternent-ils les codes?*

“La chamelle de Moulay Brahim” (pp. 75-85).

La stérilité (pp. 76,78)

- *D’après vous, pourquoi les gens veulent-ils faire des enfants?*
- *Voudriez-vous un jour faire un enfant? Si vous ne le pouviez pas, que feriez-vous?*

L’adultère (pp. 81-84)

- *Si vous étiez marié(e) et que votre époux(-se) vous trompait, comment réagiriez-vous? Votre réaction serait-elle pareille si votre petit(e) ami(e) vous trompait?*
- *Selon vous, l’adultère se justifie-t-il? Oui? Non? Jamais? Quelquefois? Explicitez.*
- *À partir de quel moment s’agit-il de tromper la personne que vous aimez? Si vous flirtez outrageusement avec quelqu’un, autre que votre petit(e) ami(e), mais que cela ne dépasse pas le stade du flirt, est-ce que votre ami(e) a le droit de se mettre en colère?*

“Orages” (pp. 127-137).

L’orientation sexuelle

- *La constitution sud-africaine vise à protéger les droits de l’individu quelle que soit son orientation sexuelle. Connaissez-vous des gens qui acceptent difficilement ce droit?*
- *Êtes-vous pour ou contre les mariages de même sexe? les prêtres gay? Est-ce que l’homosexualité est un sujet tabou chez vous?*

Mise en commun.

Example of partner-work assessment activity designed to evaluate detailed understanding of the literary text:

La nouvelle “Orages” (pp127-137).

En tandem, répondez aux questions suivantes :

1. Enumérez les personnages qui peuplent la nouvelle “Orages”. (4 pts)

.....
.....
.....
.....

2. D'après vous, de tous les personnages que vous venez d'énumérer, lequel est le personnage principal? Justifiez votre réponse. (2 pts)

.....
.....
.....

3. Sur quel axe chronologique la narration s'opère-t-elle? (2 pts)

.....
.....
.....

4. Relisez attentivement les deux premiers paragraphes de la nouvelle. Dites quel procédé stylistique y est utilisé avec 2 citations à l'appui. (3 pts)

.....
.....
.....

5. On lit: "Il sembla à Latifa que son regard était *céleste*" (130) et: "(...) c'était [...] l'*aura* de la tendre silhouette de l'étrange créature qui l'avait entourée d'une *clarté* nouvelle" (131). D'après vous quel effet l'étrange créature a-t-elle sur Latifa? (C'est nous qui soulignons) (1 pt)

.....
.....

6. On lit: "Puis il y eut le déluge" (132) et "Puis ce fut la tempête" (135). Commentez ces deux phrases en précisant ce que vous comprenez par "le déluge" et "la tempête" dans le contexte de la nouvelle. (2 pts)

.....
.....
.....
.....

7. A la page 135 on lit qu' "[u]ne goutte salée roula le long de sa joue", et puis à la page 137 qu' "[u]ne goutte salée roule le long de sa joue." Que comprenez-vous par ces deux phrases? (2 pts)

.....
.....
.....
.....

8. Commentez le titre de la nouvelle: pourquoi “Orages” au pluriel? (2 pts)

.....

.....

.....

.....

9. Qui meurt à la fin de la nouvelle? Dans quelle mesure cette mort est-elle ironique? (2 pts)

.....

.....

.....

.....

Total des points: 20

Mise en commun, distribution de réponses possibles, et auto-évaluation.

Exemple:

SLL3060F

Un jour, l'Alcyon ... de Lina Moulay, (1996, Casablanca, EDDIF) “Orages”

Possibles réponses:

1. Enumérez les personnages qui peuplent la nouvelle “Orages”. (4 pts)

Si(di) Abdou	Fatima. l'autre sœur de Latifa
Latifa, la bru de Si Abdou	La(lla) – Zahra, la mère de Latifa
Warda, la fille aînée de Latifa	la <i>roumia</i> Justine
la sœur handicapée de Latifa	filles du pays, domestique chez Justine
l'époux de Justine en voyage	
½ pt par nom, un maximum de 8 noms est noté.	

2. D'après vous, de tous les personnages que vous venez d'énumérer, lequel est le personnage principal ? Justifiez votre réponse. (2 pts)

Réponse personnelle. Soit Latifa parce que les événements sont narrés tels qu'elle les vit, soit Justine qui, étant au centre de la seule passion que Latifa ait jamais connue, est le déclencheur de l'action (1 pt nom, 1 pt justificatif).

3. Sur quel axe chronologique la narration s'opère-t-elle? (2 pts)

Elle s'opère sur le va-et-vient entre le présent et le passé tel qu'il existe dans la mémoire de Latifa (présent avec description des moments qui précèdent l'orage, orage qui rappelle à Latifa sa relation tempétueuse avec Justine et la première

fois qu'elle jouit, avec retour au présent quand elle meurt foudroyée: présent > passé > présent)

4. Relisez attentivement les deux premiers paragraphes de la nouvelle. Dites quel procédé stylistique y est utilisé avec 2 citations à l'appui. (3 pts)

Plusieurs réponses possibles dont la plus évidente est la personnification: "le soleil noir *fixait d'un œil jaunâtre*", "d'épais nuages de poussière *se mettaient à courir* sur les chemins". Les citations doivent bien sûr venir appuyer le procédé stylistique que vous choisirez de commenter. (1 pt procédé, 1 pt par citation)

5. On lit: "Il sembla à Latifa que son regard était *céleste*" (130) et: "(...) c'était [...] l'*aura* de la tendre silhouette de l'étrange créature qui l'avait entourée d'une *clarté* nouvelle" (131). D'après vous quel effet l'étrange créature a-t-elle sur Latifa? (C'est nous qui soulignons) (1 pt)

Elle exerce sur elle un effet quasi-*religieux* ; elle lui inspire une certaine crainte mêlée d'admiration ('awe'), tel un *ange* annonciateur.

6. On lit: "Puis il y eut le déluge" (132) et "Puis ce fut la tempête" (135). Commentez ces deux phrases en précisant ce que vous comprenez par "le déluge" et "la tempête" dans le contexte de la nouvelle. (2 pts)

"Le déluge" représenterait l'éveil du désir sexuel chez Latifa alors que "la tempête" serait la force de la passion qui agite le corps des deux jeunes femmes. La première de ces phrases fait penser à la locution française "Après moi le déluge", (*I don't care what happens after I'm gone*) par laquelle on comprend que Latifa, ne pouvant résister au désir qu'éveille en elle la Française, abandonne tout éventuel remords. (1 pt pr déluge, 1 pt pr tempête, la distinction entre les 2 doit être clairement précisée).

7. A la page 135 on lit qu' "[u]ne goutte salée roula le long de sa joue", et puis à la page 137 qu' "[u]ne goutte salée roule le long de sa joue." Que comprenez-vous par ces deux phrases? (2 pts)

Latifa pleure. Ce sont d'abord les larmes de la jouissance sexuelle (vbe au passé simple, elle s'en souvient – 1 pt), et puis les larmes de l'amertume douce que connaît Latifa en se souvenant de cette passion au moment de sa mort (vbe au présent – 1 pt). Possible interprétation – 2 gouttes de sueur, d'abord elle transpire lors de ses ébats amoureux avec Justine, et puis près du puits à cause de la grosse chaleur qui accompagne l'orage.

8. Commentez le titre de la nouvelle: pourquoi "Orages" au pluriel? (2 pts)

Il y a l'orage qui vient arroser la terre à la suite de trois années de sécheresse (1 pt) et l'orage de la passion que suscite Justine, passion qui vient assouvir le désir sexuel de Latifa (1 pt).

9. Qui meurt à la fin de la nouvelle? Dans quelle mesure cette mort est-elle ironique? (2 pts)

10. C'est Latifa qui trouve la mort (1 pt). Cette mort est ironique parce qu'elle meurt frappée par la foudre pendant l'orage au moment où elle se souvient du bonheur qu'elle a connu aux côtés de Justine (1 pt). Il y a un jeu de mots avec la locution

“C’est le coup de foudre” pour dire que quelqu’un tombe soudain amoureux. On rappelle aussi que nombreux sont les auteurs classiques (cette convention littéraire remonte à l’Antiquité - on pense à des poètes tels que Ovide et Catulle - mais n’y est nullement limitée) qui nomment l’orgasme “la petite mort”.

Total des points: 20

Vous ne vous êtes évalué(e) que sur votre compréhension de la nouvelle et non pas sur la langue. Vous avez peut-être eu des problèmes à vous exprimer? – lisez beaucoup en français ... il n’y a pas de recette miracle. Plus on lit, mieux on s’exprime. Bonne chance et bonne lecture!

4. Repérage

Ecoutez attentivement la sociologue et écrivain Soumaya Nâamane Guessous, auteur de Au-delà de toute pudeur (EDDIF : Casablanca, 1995) qui répond aux questions de Serge Ménager ; ensuite répondez aux questions à choix multiple sur la tradition de la virginité:

Plusieurs réponses sont parfois possibles.

Cochez la ou les bonne(s) réponse(s) :

1. Qu’est-ce qui fait que les femmes de la génération de la sociologue se posent des questions?
 - a) La curiosité.
 - b) La scolarisation.
 - c) L’ouverture à l’Occident.
2. Pour qui fallait-il rester vierge jusqu’au mariage?
 - a) Pour la génération de la mère et la grand-mère de Soumaya Nâamane Guessous.
 - b) Pour Soumaya Nâamane Guessous.
 - c) Pour les femmes de la génération de la sociologue.
3. Pour ces femmes la tradition de la virginité était
 - a) une tâche sacrée aussi importante que la religion.
 - b) une tâche sacrée moins importante que la religion.
 - c) une tâche sacrée plus importante que la religion.
4. Ces femmes
 - a) tenaient toujours compte de toutes les règles religieuses.
 - b) ne tenaient jamais compte des règles religieuses.
 - c) tenaient compte de certaines règles religieuses.

5. Qui est-ce qui a contribué à faire évoluer la société marocaine?
 - a) Les femmes qui ont vécu les années soixante.
 - b) Les femmes qui ont vécu les années cinquante.
 - c) Les femmes qui ont vécu les années quatre-vingts.
6. En quelle décennie le Maroc est-il parti sur des rails vers la modernité?
 - a) dans les années soixante-dix.
 - b) dans les années soixante.
 - c) dans les années quatre-vingts.
7. Qu'est-ce qui a contribué à ralentir la progression vers la modernité?
 - a) L'évolution des mentalités.
 - b) L'action des jeunes.
 - c) L'émergence du mouvement fondamentaliste.
8. Maintenant que la progression vers la modernité a été ralentie, qu'est-ce que certaines femmes ne font plus?
 - a) Elles ne se promènent plus en short ou en mini-jupe.
 - b) Elles ne fument plus dans la rue.
 - c) Elles ne sortent plus.
9. Pourquoi ne font-elles plus certaines choses?
 - a) Par respect pour certaines règles implicites.
 - b) Par peur d'échouer.
 - c) Par peur de choquer.
10. Selon Soumaya Nâamane Guessous, le processus d'évolution
 - a) est freiné par le mouvement fondamentaliste.
 - b) est toléré par le mouvement fondamentaliste.
 - c) est mis en danger par le mouvement fondamentaliste.

Ré-écrivez cette constatation de Soumaya Nâamane Guessous en utilisant vos propres mots :

“Aujourd’hui on se bat pour garder les acquis, pas pour en gagner d’autres.”

Comparez vos réponses avec celles de votre voisin (e).

Mise en commun

Total des points sur 10 pour les QCM = _____

5. Conceptualisation

Jeux de rôle.

A deux, choisissez l'**un** des jeux de rôle suivants, préparez-le et jouez-le.

- i) Jeu de rôle à 2 ; A = parent, B = enfant.

Vous êtes parent (A); votre enfant (B), âgé(e) de 15 ans, ne veut plus continuer ses études au-delà de ses 16 ans et en donne ses raisons. À chacun de ses arguments, vous trouvez un contre-argument dans une tentative de le/la dissuader.

- ii) Jeu de rôle à 2, A = époux, B = épouse.

Vous êtes parents de 3 filles. B a repris sa carrière et vient d'avoir une promotion. A désire ardemment un fils pour assurer la survie du nom de famille et se propose de prendre une seconde épouse. B n'est pas d'accord et en donne ses raisons.

6. Systématisation

Simulation

Mettez-vous en tandem et jouez la scène ci-dessous. A vous de créer l'identité de chacun des deux personnages.

Deux ami(e)s, A & B. A vient de se rendre compte de son homosexualité mais a peur de l'annoncer à ses parents. B le conseille.

7. Production

Devoir : date limite – le vendredi 17 mars 13h00.

La perspective adoptée par Lina Moulay pour toutes les nouvelles dont nous avons discuté en cours, est celle de la femme/jeune fille/fille. Sélectionnez **une** des nouvelles, mettez-vous dans cet entre-deux qui oscille entre le réel et l'imaginaire (source de créativité) et, en fonction de l'intrigue de la nouvelle que vous avez sélectionnée, rédigez votre propre nouvelle mais du point de vue de **l'homme**. Remettez-moi la version brouillon le 10 mars pour que je puisse vous signaler les éventuelles fautes de langue qu'il faudrait corriger avant de me soumettre votre version finale.

Attribution des points:

- | | |
|---|-----------|
| – Respect de la consigne | 5 points |
| – Créativité | 15 points |
| – Respect de la chronologie du récit, faisant preuve de compréhension du texte | 5 points |
| – Correction de la langue (accords, genres, temps verbaux, formes verbales, prépositions, pronoms, orthographe) | 15 points |
| – Fluidité de l'expression | 5 points |
| – Qualité de la présentation | 5 points |

Total des points: 50

8. Pour aller plus loin ...

*Lisez le document ci-dessous: c'est le résumé que je vous ai fait d'un ouvrage de sociologie rédigé par une sociologue marocaine. Trouvez dans **Un jour l'Alcyon** ... des exemples des phénomènes sociétaux qui y sont mentionnés. Réfléchissez à l'usage dont fait Lina Moulay; d'après vous, à quel point leur utilisation contribue-t-elle à la lisibilité et au plaisir que vous avez pu ressentir en lisant le texte? Ou, par contre, croyez-vous que de tels sujets conviennent mieux à des écrits sociologiques?*

Soumaya Nâamane Guessous, sociologue

Au-delà de toute pudeur, EDDIF : Casablanca, 1995

Tradition de la virginité :

- Contacts intimes avec un homme avant le mariage :
 "... la jeune fille scolarisée est plus apte à prendre des initiatives, à se dégager du carcan des interdits familiaux. Elle a acquis hors de son milieu une confiance en elle-même qui la fait agir plus spontanément et refuser de se laisser couler dans le moule qui a façonné ses aînées : la 'ada – la tradition." (47)
- "... c'est la mère qui est la gardienne de la tradition, et lorsqu'elle n'est pas là, la jeune fille est moins surveillée. Il n'est pas impossible non plus qu'une mère qui travaille au dehors soit moins sévère avec ses filles. Cette expérience sexuelle existe donc bien avant les noces ; mais elle n'est pas pour autant facile à vivre. Au premier plan se dressent les remords et la culpabilité – et comment en serait-il autrement dans une société qui condamne toute sexualité féminine, hors des liens conjugaux? Rappelons à ce propos que l'homme est en revanche vivement encouragé par cette même société à assouvir ses désirs..." (47-48)
- "Jusqu'à une période très récente c'est aux prescriptions religieuses que se rapportait le violent sentiment de culpabilité ressenti par les jeunes filles lorsqu'elles avaient eu des rapports sexuels ; mais la ferveur religieuse a aujourd'hui considérablement diminué et la jeune génération se réfère non pas tant à la notion de péché, qu'aux règles morales que la famille tire de la religion et de la tradition. (...) [S]eule une minorité de jeunes filles (une sur quatre) ne se sent pas coupable d'avoir des relations sexuelles. Les autres évoquent l'image de leurs parents bienfaiteurs et dévoués que leur fille déshonore. La religion vient en second lieu dans ce conflit qui les agite, le sentiment de transgression d'une convention sociale (l'honneur) vient après, suivi enfin de la culpabilité éventuelle envers le futur époux (...). Leur inaptitude à régler ce conflit trouve sa source dans la mutilation que leur fait subir l'éducation conforme aux valeurs dominantes : l'éradication – si possible – de toute réflexion individuelle." (49-50)
- Nâamane-Guessous rappelle que la virginité est un thème qui se retrouve dans de nombreux cultes, monothéistes ou polythéistes et ajoute que "[s]i le Coran pour sa part ne condamne jamais la volupté dans le cadre conjugal, la virginité n'est pas moins valorisée quand elle est féminine."⁴(165)

⁴ La sociologue se reporte au Coran, "Al'imran" III : 13, et "Les femmes" IV : 60.

- “Le Coran enjoint donc aux femmes de rester vierges jusqu’à leurs noces, et tout rapport sexuel en dehors des liens du mariage leur est interdit. L’homme en revanche peut jouir des femmes qui lui appartiennent, esclaves ou captives de guerre ; tant qu’il demeure dans ce terrain de chasse licite⁵, il n’a aucun sentiment de faute à éprouver ; lorsque les esclaves ont disparu, les hommes ont dû assouvir leurs désirs de façon illicite, mais avec le satisfecit de tous (...)” (167)
- “La virilité demeure une qualité socialement reconnue comme indispensable, et un marié puceau serait quelque chose de profondément ridicule.” (167)
- Lors de l’enquête menée par la sociologue, “[d]ans près de neuf cas sur dix (...), les filles ont affirmé que la virginité est indispensable au mariage.” (167) Celles qui ne le sont plus, le vivent fort mal et avancent des arguments d’ordre moral pour expliquer leur position (“le mari doit entrer en possession d’un bien intact ...” (167)⁶)
- “La proportion des jeunes filles qui redoutent réellement le péché de chair est en fait infime ; le poids de la morale sociale l’emporte largement sur la religion chez les plus farouches partisans de la tradition.” (168)
- “Ignorance, manque de confiance en soi ; ce n’est certes pas par insouciance que les jeunes filles ne vivent pas leur sexualité de façon responsable ; on retiendra surtout la solitude dans laquelle elles abordent les problèmes liés aux relations sexuelles, solitude imposée par un contexte social qui, encore une fois, accorde toute licence à l’homme et fait peser le sentiment de faute sur la femme, et sur elle seule. On conçoit donc qu’avoir une activité sexuelle pour une femme marocaine, c’est avant tout vivre dans l’angoisse, angoisse de perdre sa virginité, d’être découverte, d’être enceinte...” (53)

Traditions et lois du mariage, “le sacrifice des noces” :

- L’article 4 de la *Moudouwana* (code du statut personnel⁷) précise que le contrat de mariage est établi à la demande d’une des parties, et consentement de l’autre ; l’article douze précise en outre que le père ne peut forcer sa fille à se marier. La réalité est naturellement tout autre. De nombreuses jeunes filles sont encore victimes de l’autorité des hommes qui les commandent ; la seule évolution s’est faite par le recul de l’âge du mariage. Cet âge, on le sait, a longtemps coïncidé avec la période pubertaire ; mais deux éléments sont venus modifier la situation des filles à marier : d’une part, la loi a fixé à quinze ans l’âge minimum requis pour le mariage des filles (article huit de la *Moudouwana*)⁸, à dix-huit ans pour le garçon ; d’autre part, la scolarisation prolonge le célibat féminin, qui est passé en

⁵ Voir à ce propos la page 17 du récit *Moi Mireille, lorsque j’étais Yasmina* de Fadéla Sebti, Le Fennec : Casablanca, 1995.

⁶ Voir à ce propos la page 56 du récit *Moi Mireille, lorsque j’étais Yasmina* de Fadéla Sebti, Le Fennec : Casablanca, 1995.

⁷ La *Moudouwana* est la codification du droit musulman. Elle comporte six livres (le mariage, la dissolution du mariage, la filiation, la capacité et la représentation légale, le testament et la succession), lesquels furent promulgués en 1957 et 1958 par Dahir. Pour le premier de ses promoteurs, le Souverain Mohammed V, elle devait concrétiser un retour à la juridiction islamique, et prouver que cette juridiction pouvait parfaitement s’adapter à la vie moderne.

⁸ D’après le *Mail & Guardian on line* du 16 janvier 2004, une commission gouvernementale chargée de revoir les droits de la femme au Maroc, recommande, entre autres, que l’âge requis pour le mariage d’une jeune fille soit fixé à dix-huit ans. Voir <http://www.mg.co.za/Content/13.asp?ao=29711>.

l'espace de douze ans de 25% à 33,2% de la population féminine âgée de plus de quinze ans.⁹” (68)

- “un autre tiers environ de femmes ont été mariées sans même être consultées, et dans la forme la plus extrême, des parents ont pu aller jusqu’à omettre de prévenir leur fille de ses noces prochaines. (...) Il arrivait que la fillette fût promise encore enfant, et ne l’appût qu’à quelques jours de la cérémonie, parfois au moment d’entrer dans la chambre nuptiale. Fort heureusement, ces mariages ont été contractés avant le milieu des années soixante, et sont aujourd’hui totalement exceptionnels ; si l’on ne disait rien à ces fillettes, c’était pour ne pas les effrayer, à un âge (douze à quinze ans) où elles avaient encore besoin de la protection de leur mère ; en outre une croyance voulait que lorsqu’une vierge apprenait trop jeune son mariage, son *sbah* (le sang de la défloration et, par extension, l’hymen) risquât de disparaître (...)” (76)
- “La jeune fille n’a donc qu’une autonomie limitée quand il est question de son mariage. Celle qui a déjà été mariée, la *hajala*, femme sans mari, est dans une situation encore moins enviable, et elle est souvent amenée à accepter le premier prétendant venu, car son entourage n’a qu’une hâte, se débarrasser de l’anomalie qu’elle constitue ; le second mariage d’une femme est en fait un arrangement pratique où le père ne peut plus choisir pour gendre, un allié, avec fierté, mais opte pour le premier venu, à qui il cède la divorcée, boulet encombrant. C’est finalement toujours le père qui donne sa fille à un autre homme, et la mère ne participe à une décision que lorsqu’il s’agit de trouver une épouse pour son fils ; cette autorité paternelle se retrouve dans les aspects juridiques du mariage.” (77)
- “Dans le Maroc contemporain, l’acte de mariage est organisé par le code du statut personnel. Celui-ci exige la présence de deux agents gouvernementaux (*’adûls*) qui établissent l’acte en précisant la valeur du douaire¹⁰ (...) [q]ui est constitué de tout ce que le mari donne en argent ou autre valeur dans le but du mariage et pour fonder un foyer.” (78)¹¹
- “N’est douaire que ce qui est précisé sur l’acte de mariage¹². (...) En principe, le douaire revient à la mariée ; l’article 18 de la *Moudouwana* interdit à l’époux de prétendre une dot en échange. Cependant l’usage courant au Maroc en fait profiter le père ou le tuteur de l’épouse (...). Il peut tout simplement décider que cette somme lui est due, en compensation du coût qu’a représenté l’éducation de sa fille ; plus généralement, il la consacrera à l’ameublement d’une des pièces de la nouvelle demeure conjugale.” (81)

⁹ Recensement général de la population et de l’habitat, septembre 1982.

¹⁰ À l’opposé de **la dot** qui est le bien qu’une femme apporte en se mariant. Certains ne font pourtant pas cette distinction et le mot “dot” est largement employé ; voir à ce propos la page 24 du récit de Fadéla Sebti, *Moi Mireille, lorsque j’étais Yasmina*, Le Fennec : Casablanca, 1995.

¹¹ Seules quelques rares jeunes filles, passées par l’enseignement secondaire et universitaire, pensent que le montant du douaire ne devrait pas dépasser les 100 dirhams symboliques. Pour la très grande majorité, le douaire est une tradition religieuse à laquelle les parents tiennent et que la loi a codifiée, une manière pour leur gendre de les dédommager de tout l’argent qu’ils ont dépensé en élevant leur fille, et une façon pour lui de prouver son attachement à sa future épouse.

¹² Ce n’est pas le cas des autres cadeaux, objets ou cadeaux symboliques tel le henné, dont le mot ressemble au mot “tendresse” ou le sucre qui doit sucrer l’existence de la future mariée, ou le sel qui garantit à l’épouse le charme indispensable en ce jour unique (le mot arabe pour ‘charmante’ étant *malha*, salée).

- “[L]es préparatifs de nocés tels que la tradition les a fixés et tels qu’on les pratique encore aujourd’hui (...) sont essentiellement centrés sur la défloration.” (169)
- “Le cérémonial du bain (au *hammam*¹³) est encore très vivace, mais tend parfois à être remplacé par des séances en instituts de beauté ou en salon de coiffure.” (170)
- “Quant à la cérémonie du henné, elle réunit des membres féminins de la famille proche, autour d’une professionnelle de l’art de la décoration au henné *naqqacha* : les produits de son savoir-faire sont des bijoux arabesques qui transfigurent les mains et les pieds de la mariée.”¹⁴
- “Dans de nombreuses familles, la mère fait examiner sa fille par un médecin qui établit un certificat de virginité. (...) les ‘*ârifates*, auxiliaires féminines attachées au ministère de l’Intérieur, sont, entre autres, habilitées à contrôler une virginité (...) Les ‘*ârifates* sont assermentées et leur avis a valeur de sentence.” (170-171)
- Le rite de la nuit de nocés qui symbolise le passage de l’état d’enfant à celui de femme doit se faire dans les meilleures conditions et la première précaution consiste à se prémunir contre la malveillance d’autrui. Le *shour* (sorcellerie) pourrait être jeté sur la demeure de la mariée ou du marié et rendre celui-ci impuissant. Les amulettes et les fumigations sont considérées comme la plus efficace des protections. Le linge destiné à recueillir le sang de la défloration peut être un *serwal* ou le caftan de la mariée. Les cotonnades sont conseillées ainsi que la couleur blanche. Des broderies vertes accentuent le contraste entre le rouge du sang et le blanc et symbolisent l’espoir. Le cérémonial qui précède la défloration se déroule dans la demeure paternelle de la jeune fille. Les invités sont nombreux, la nourriture est surabondante, les vêtements des femmes sont luxueux et chatoyants. Les femmes sont maquillées et parées de bijoux. La mariée ressemble à une poupée, assise sur une sorte d’estrade ; elle se rehausse encore par sa très haute coiffure, son maquillage très voyant, scintillant de paillettes dorées, les bijoux qui ornent son cou, sa tête, ses oreilles, sa poitrine, sa taille, ses doigts et avant-bras. La mariée, ‘*aroussa*, doit montrer un charme sans égal. C’est le corps qui importe et par lequel elle s’exprime ; elle doit s’abstenir de parler et de rire.
- Elle part ensuite vers la chambre nuptiale, quittant donc le foyer paternel pour la tutelle d’une nouvelle famille.
- Dès qu’elle arrive chez sa belle-famille en compagnie de son mari, elle ne doit plus se consacrer qu’à sa belle-famille et à ses enfants. Les chants populaires et les proverbes¹⁵ contiennent bien cette image de la mère qui perd sa fille en la mariant. La séparation d’avec la mère peut être un véritable déchirement, surtout si on marie la fille très jeune, à l’âge de 12 ou 14 ans; la fille embrasse sa mère, lui demande pardon et les deux versent des larmes.

¹³ Bain public, bain maure.

¹⁴ Voir la nouvelle “La seconde épouse” du recueil de nouvelles de Lina Moulay (53). La lecture du roman *Une odeur de henné* de Cécile Oumhani, (Alif – Les Editions de la Méditerranée : Tunis, 1999) est hautement conseillée à ce propos car dans le monde fictif qu’elle crée, Oumhani se demande si le henné qui est utilisé dans les pays du Maghreb pour réaliser les tatouages des jeunes mariées, symbolise aussi l’emprise de la tradition, les mariages arrangés.

¹⁵ Ex “La maison qui contient des filles est destinée à être vide.”

- Le cortège nuptial rejoint le lieu prévu pour la défloration qui, pour quelques rares privilégiés, a lieu sur un terrain neutre, dans une chambre d'hôtel. En général tout doit se passer dans la nouvelle maison du couple ou dans celle des beaux parents. Après une cérémonie d'accueil, les mariés sont introduits dans leur chambre, accompagnés des chants et de la musique. Les femmes âgées ne parlent pas de chambre nuptiale mais de *dakhchoucha* (tente nuptiale dressée dans la pièce où sont les invitées). La préoccupation principale de toute la noce est d'exhiber le linge taché de sang. Le nouvel mari est pressé d'agir car sa virilité est en jeu. Pour les jeunes femmes instruites la défloration se passe souvent bien car elles ont déjà eu des rapports sexuels superficiels avec leur fiancé et leur mariage est plus un mariage d'amour qu'un arrangement ; c'est ainsi que la nuit de noces prend toute sa valeur sentimentale. Pour les femmes plus âgées, illettrées ou de niveau d'instruction primaire, la défloration est plus un rite social qu'un acte sexuel. "Les invités et surtout la famille de la mariée tambourinent à la porte et psalmodient leur traditionnelle exigence: "Donne-nous notre bien que nous nous en allions". La scène prend l'allure d'un combat entre les deux partis en présence ; la famille du mari attend la preuve de sa virilité, celle de l'épouse, la preuve de la virginité comme une revanche..." (178) Les femmes les plus marquées par ce rite sont les plus âgées que l'on a mariées très jeunes à des hommes beaucoup plus âgés; de tels mariages, encore fréquents dans les années '50 et '60, sont devenus rares dans les années '80.
- Le mari impuissant est considéré *mtaqaf* (ensorcelé par quelqu'un à qui le mariage ne plaît pas). Les remèdes sont divers (181-182).
- "Une fois que la goutte de sang rituelle a été recueillie sur le linge, une conseillère est appelée pour donner son avis sur la qualité de la tache; lorsque l'approbation a été délivrée, le linge est déposé sur un plateau, et remis aux invités (...)" (184) Le clan de la mariée pousse des ululements et danse, le plateau sur la tête. Les tam-tams et chants accompagnent la scène. Le plateau se remplit d'argent et de bijoux destinés à la mariée. Le plateau fait le tour du quartier au son des tam-tams; mais dans les quartiers résidentiels ou ceux d'immeubles récents, cette habitude s'est perdue. Le linge est remis à la famille du marié qui l'exhibe le lendemain lors de la cérémonie *sbah* ou *sbouhi*. La coutume qui veut que le sang de la défloration soit exhibé est très ancrée dans les mœurs marocaines. Et même les jeunes femmes instruites sont souvent obligées de s'y plier sous la pression de la famille. Certaines y voient une obligation religieuse. 7 jeunes filles sur 10 assurent qu'elles se plieront à la coutume : honneur, besoin de se déculpabiliser aux yeux des gens, intérêt (pour l'argent sur le plateau)? Si l'honneur qu'on lie à l'hymen est défendu par les hommes, les traditions relatives à la défloration se conservent et sont transmises par les femmes. La nuit de noces est une affaire de femmes et tous les interdits concernant le sexe qu'on essaie d'inculquer aux femmes depuis leur plus jeune enfance, sont transgressés. Ce changement de mœurs est un rite de passage, un rite de déculpabilisation par rapport à la sexualité.
- La préservation de la virginité de la jeune femme peut être une véritable dictature. Bien que ce soit l'honneur de tous les membres **mâles** de la famille qui rentre en jeu, c'est la mère qui est chargée d'appliquer la loi des hommes. Au bain maure (*hammam*) elle scrutera le ventre, les seins de sa fille pour déceler les signes d'une éventuelle grossesse. Certaines femmes ont recours à la sorcellerie

(l'irrationnel reste l'arme la plus sûre de certaines femmes lorsque la réalité leur échappe).

- Nâamane-Guessous constate dans son étude que le partenaire du premier rapport sexuel des jeunes marocaines appartient à leur entourage immédiat alors que celui qui la déflore (avant le mariage) évolue dans une sphère éloignée, la rencontre dans un endroit public, est 2 ou 3 fois plus âgé qu'elle. Quelquefois la jeune fille accepte de se faire déflorer pour garder son partenaire qui menace d'aller chercher du plaisir ailleurs. Quelquefois le partenaire use de l'arme redoutable qu'est la promesse de mariage. Quand la jeune femme lui cède, elle vit souvent son état comme une diminution et une humiliation. Si le partenaire se lasse d'elle et l'abandonne, les conséquences de sa défloration la rendent muette quant à l'identité de celui qui l'a dépucelée.
- La loi et la coutume n'ont pas la même position en matière de défloration illégitime. "Il est courant qu'on condamne, non pas le couple, mais seulement la fille." (200) La loi rend les deux partenaires coupables et les punit d'un mois à un an de prison chacun (article 490 du code pénal). Cette peine peut être majorée pour l'homme qui a défloré une jeune fille mineure (l'âge de la majorité est de 21 ans). L'homme qui a violé est seul responsable et encourt 5 à 10 ans de réclusion, 10 à 20 si sa victime était vierge. Cependant la plupart des jeunes filles se gardent bien de porter plainte en cas de défloration, car la crainte du scandale et de la colère familiale est trop forte.
- Aujourd'hui il existe une méthode moderne pour venir en aide aux virginités perdues: l'hyméorraphie, intervention chirurgicale qui devient de moins en moins coûteuse, car elle est pratiquée de plus en plus souvent. Pratique beaucoup moins coûteuse et possible lorsque la jeune femme épouse l'homme qui l'a dépucelée, est celle de jouer la comédie, destinée à la famille et surtout à la belle-famille, de faire saigner le doigt sur un linge, au nom des coutumes. Cela se passe aussi quand le couple a déjà consommé le mariage, avant la cérémonie traditionnelle mais après le mariage légal mais sans qu'il y ait de fondement juridique (article 21 du Code du statut personnel) ; la coutume l'emporte encore.
- "La jeune femme arrive donc chez son mari pour trouver une femme qui domine la maison. Elle doit se soumettre à cette belle-mère et en même temps passer ses journées en sa compagnie. La tradition incarne cette soumission dans deux habitudes : le baisemain et le titre de *lalla* (maîtresse¹⁶) donné à la belle-mère. Le fils lui-même doit respect et obéissance à cette mère qui prend toujours le pas sur son épouse. Le Coran recommande cette obéissance (...) ¹⁷. Les rapports de bru à belle-mère sont marqués immédiatement du sceau de l'hostilité réciproque. (...) Certaines femmes sollicitent leurs permissions de sortie auprès de leur seule belle-mère, le mari lui ayant en fait délégué son autorité. Cette ainsi que certaines mères gèrent le budget du foyer et défendent elles-mêmes l'honneur conjugal de leur fils... (...) Certains maris (...) se sont vus l'objet de pratiques magiques de leur mère, puis des ripostes de leur épouse, lorsque les deux femmes usent de la sorcellerie dans leur ardeur de possession!" (92-93)

¹⁶ Khadija Naamouni dans son ouvrage *Le Culte de Bouya Omar*, (EDDIF : Casablanca, 1993) définit ainsi ce terme : "féminin de Sidi : on appelle une *chrifa* "Lalla". Une sainte est aussi appelée "Lalla". " (202) *Sidi* veut dire "Monseigneur" et une *chrifa* ou *chrifiyya* est la descendante d'un saint (*chrif* ou *chérif* au masculin).

¹⁷ Coran "Al Ahqâf" XI-VI : 14.

Une vie de recluse, derrière un voile, derrière une porte :

- “Le monde des femmes continue d’être isolé de celui des hommes, même si l’évolution sociale tend à atténuer les formes extrêmes de cette ségrégation par la scolarisation et le travail professionnel, par la prise en charge de certaines tâches jadis réservées au père, comme la scolarisation des enfants, les démarches administratives, le marché ... Cette très lente libéralisation de l’existence féminine suscite des réactions contradictoires chez les hommes (...).¹⁸ [E]lle (la femme) est en effet toujours consciente de la précarité de sa position au sein du foyer : la répudiation semble agir comme une épée de Damoclès.¹⁹ C’est ainsi que les maris les plus conservateurs imposent à leur épouse – dont l’activité hors du foyer leur profite malgré tout largement – le port de la *djellaba* (ou même du voile) et une stricte surveillance. (...) L’époux cherche par là à protéger son bien – et donc son honneur – des regards indiscrets. Le voile est bien ce rempart (...) à l’aide duquel l’homme isole la femme de la concupiscence mais surtout du monde extérieur. Le motif conscient et déclaré est toujours celui de l’honneur du propriétaire. C’est donc, très banalement, une sécurité morale...” (95-95)
- “L’âge avançant, les grossesses se succèdent, le voile devient aux yeux du mari inutile ; c’est au-delà de la trentaine qu’une épouse est considérée usée. (...) Certaines femmes, veuves ou divorcées, continuent (...) de porter le voile par peur de la médisance. La pression sociale supplée largement la disparition de l’autorité conjugale ; les deux participent au demeurant au même ordre moral.” (97)
- Un mari jaloux peut (...) éprouver la loyauté de sa femme pendant des années, avant que celle-ci n’achète – grâce à sa conduite irréprochable – sa confiance. Les enfants jouent en général un rôle décisif dans cette émancipation : lorsqu’ils sont assez grands pour parler, leur mère peut sortir avec eux, et ils font alors office de chaperon. L’avancement en âge des femmes leur donne également une plus grande marge de liberté, dans la mesure où elles deviennent moins désirables. Cependant l’évolution la plus remarquable est venue du travail professionnel féminin, dont on a déjà souligné le rôle d’ouverture sur le monde. Il faut rappeler néanmoins que les plus âgées des femmes, loin de se révolter contre cette surveillance, en ont plutôt tiré vanité : le mâle qui les a commandées incarnait pour elles le respect de l’ordre des choses et de la vertu morale ... Une sorte de prestige se dégageait à leurs yeux de leur propre soumission. Mais ce n’est certes pas là le point de vue le plus répandu chez les femmes d’aujourd’hui, et la plupart d’entre elles souffrent de cette méfiance au sein du couple. Elles ont d’autre part à supporter la profonde inégalité qui régit les rapports de couple. (...) Il est courant dans notre société que les deux conjoints n’aient que très peu d’activités communes ; il n’existe en fait pas de vie de couple au sens strict, et l’usage veut par exemple qu’un homme soit invité chez des amis, aille au restaurant, au café, sans sa femme. Les soirées qu’il organise hors de chez lui sont par ailleurs agrémentées d’autres présences féminines ... Pendant ce temps, l’épouse légitime garde le foyer et les enfants, attend le retour de l’absent, attend sa part de faveurs.” (97-98)

¹⁸ Voir Pascon et Bentahar, *Ce que disent 296 jeunes ruraux*, bulletin économique et social du Maroc, Etudes sociologiques sur le Maroc, Rabat 1978, pp140-143, où 64% des suffrages répondent au désir de claustration et 22% au désir de soumission.

¹⁹ Voir le site qui figure dans la note 8.

L'activité professionnelle : une autonomie illusoire

- “... Tout être humain est responsable de pourvoir à ses besoins par ses propres moyens sauf l'épouse, donc c'est le mari qui pourvoit à ses besoins”, déclare l'article 115 du statut personnel ; l'article 35 stipule en outre que la femme est en droit d'attendre de son mari son entretien (*nafafa*) en nourriture, habillement, soins médicaux, logement. L'épouse dépend donc de son mari pour sa subsistance, et lui assure en retour sa force de travail, sa fonction procréatrice, la totale disponibilité de son corps, et son obéissance. Les rapports dans le couple sont donc foncièrement inégaux, mais cet ordre des choses est troublé lorsque l'épouse atteint l'autonomie financière. Il y a là une double menace, fortement ressentie par le mari : son honneur d'époux est en péril, son prestige de mâle tend à s'effriter... L'épouse qui travaille est en effet soumise à des tentations que son mari ne peut plus contrôler ; pour écarter toute convoitise masculine de leur femme, certains hommes les enlaidissent délibérément en leur interdisant la moindre coquetterie vestimentaire ; c'est également une façon d'affirmer leur autorité au-delà du seuil de la maison. (...) Il est bien évident qu'une femme qui travaille ne jouit pas en toute liberté de son salaire ; la plupart du temps elle travaille simplement au bénéfice de son mari – qui reproduit une forme d'exploitation, ô combien ancienne – malgré la précision apportée sur ce point par le code du statut personnel (article 35) : le mari n'a aucun droit de regard sur la gestion des biens de sa femme, et celle-ci en a l'entière liberté. Cependant certaines femmes seraient battues ou devraient cesser toute activité au-dehors si elles n'abandonnaient pas l'intégralité de leur paie à leur mari. (...) La forme d'exploitation la moins apparente est aussi la plus répandue : c'est le plus souvent au foyer que les femmes consacrent leur argent. Il leur est par conséquent presque impossible d'économiser (...) ; leur conjoint (...) en revanche ne participe pas toujours aux frais du ménage et peut mettre de côté une partie de son revenu.”²⁰
- “Les femmes vivent ainsi dans la hantise d'être répudiées un jour, et de se retrouver sans rien, sans aucun droit sur les biens durant leur mariage par un époux qui n'a jamais pleinement contribué aux dépenses du foyer. Elles ne peuvent pas non plus se défaire de l'idée qu'en cas de décès du mari, une partie des biens de celui-ci revient à sa famille. (...) Il s'agit donc bien d'un problème de cohésion au sein du couple : rarissimes sont les conjoints vivant dans ce qu'on pourrait appeler une communauté de biens. L'activité professionnelle des femmes finit par devenir une sorte de pressions et d'inégalités supplémentaires ; tout cela s'ajoute à une atmosphère fort conflictuelle, où la maîtresse qui craint de ne plus l'être totalement, s'oppose à l'esclave qui aspire à s'affranchir un peu plus...” (101-102)

Affrontements, conflits : le choix des armes

- L'article 36 du code personnel déclare que la femme est tenue de garder son honneur et d'être obéissante à son époux, dans les limites des convenances ; cette

²⁰ C'est au nom du mari que sont faits les achats importants (acquisition d'un bien immobilier, achat de la maison qui est donc mise à son nom) et qui lui reviennent par conséquent à la dissolution du mariage ; ceci peut prendre une tournure dramatique lorsqu'on sait à quel point les mariages sont instables, “si aléatoires parfois qu'il existe au Maroc un dicton pour l'exprimer : “le mariage est comme un vaisseau en mer entre les mains de Dieu...” (Nâamane-Guessous, 101).

obéissance est déjà recommandée dans le Coran : “Les femmes vertueuses sont obéissantes et soumises (...).”²¹ Une correction peut être administrée à la femme désobéissante, mais le Prophète recommande de ne pas en abuser.”²²

- La loi coranique autorise donc le mari à punir sa femme, et c’est un droit qu’en général il ne manque pas d’exercer ; d’autres personnes de la famille s’arrogent à leur tour ce privilège, en particulier la belle-mère et les belles-sœurs. (...) La loi (...) accorde le divorce aux femmes battues, à condition toutefois que leur corps porte la marque des sévices encourus, constatée par un médecin. Toute latitude est donc laissée aux violences qui ne laissent pas de traces tel (*sic*) que gifles, coups de pied ...”²³ (103)
- “L’épouse n’est pas pour autant complètement démunie face à la puissance de son seigneur et maître. Elle peut faire intervenir les mâles de sa famille contre la famille de son mari, et trouver là un point d’appui : on dira d’elle, qu’elle “a des épaules”, l’épaule passant pour être le siège de la force et de la fierté.”²⁴ (104)
- “Mais elle a aussi la ressource de se faire *karha*, de refuser toute communication, par la parole ou par le geste, avec son mari.”²⁵

L’épouse-mère :

- “La femme n’a souvent que la maternité pour combler le vide de sa vie conjugale ; avoir un enfant est d’ailleurs partie intégrante de son devoir d’épouse, et l’on sait que ce devoir est, dans notre société fondateur du lien marital. La position d’épouse se renforce lors de la grossesse, de l’accouchement, et surtout lorsque l’enfant né est de sexe mâle”. (106)
- “[A]u Maroc 85% des accouchements continuent de se dérouler à domicile, avec l’aide d’une *qabla* (sage-femme traditionnelle).²⁶ (...) Les femmes les plus jeunes et les plus instruites accouchent bien sûr davantage en hôpital ou en clinique.” (106-107)
- “La différence qui les sépare des femmes de milieux plus populaires, s’efface en revanche lorsque l’on aborde la question du sexe de l’enfant à venir : la préférence pour le garçon est nettement affichée, dans toutes les couches

²¹ Coran, “Les femmes” IV : 38.

²² “Qu’aucun de vous ne fustige sa femme (sur la peau au point de l’endommager) comme on fustige une esclave (...).” El Bokhari, *Cah’ih’, L’authentique tradition musulmane*, traduction de G.H.Bousquet. Fasquelle : Paris, 1964 (281). Nâamane-Guessous cite aussi (272) Ibn Agiba Abou Abbas, Fahrassa, extraits de la traduction de J.L. Michon, *La sexualité assumée*, Lamalif, Casablanca, 52, 1972 : “Seuls les plus mauvais d’entre vous battent leurs femmes.” (40)

²³ Article 56 du code du statut personnel. Les punitions ne sont pas toujours d’ordre physique ; l’épouse rebelle peut par exemple se voir interdire l’accès de la rue, ou les visites à ses parents même si la loi lui accorde ce droit (article 35 du code du statut personnel). Un séjour forcé dans la demeure paternelle aide parfois à rendre l’épouse plus docile.

²⁴ Nâamane-Guessous cite comme référence M. Belghiti, *Les relations féminines et le statut de la femme dans la famille rurale (dans trois villages de la Tessaout)*, Bulletin économique social du Maroc, Rabat, 1978 (355-356).

²⁵ C’est ce que Nâamane-Guessous qualifie de “grève conjugale” (104).

²⁶ C’est aussi la *qabla* qui donne aux femmes délaissées des recettes pour retenir leur époux volage, qui fournit des talismans ; c’est elle qui sait composer des philtres aphrodisiaques et comment concevoir un enfant mâle. Son métier possède donc toute une dimension magique et religieuse.

sociales.²⁷ (...) Cette préférence pour les enfants mâles remonte à l'aube des temps ; en Arabie préislamique, certains parents tuaient leurs filles dès la naissance, pour éviter qu'elle (*sic*) ne les déshonorent plus tard. Si l'Islam a éliminé ces pratiques, cette préférence est demeurée ancrée dans les mentalités jusqu'à notre époque.²⁸ (...) L'argument ultime – sans doute le plus important – est celui de l'héritage, que toutes les femmes, des plus instruites aux plus ignorantes, évoquent : le garçon hérite d'une part entière, et empêche les oncles et les tantes paternels de profiter du patrimoine familial : c'est là une garantie appréciable pour la mère." (107-108)

- "Partir en pèlerinage sur les tombeaux des saints est (...) recommandé, et ceux de Sidi Bou Nfais à Marrakech, de Moulay Bouchaïb à Azzemour sont réputés pour leurs effets bénéfiques, au point que les chanteuses populaires (les *chikhates*) l'invoquent dans leurs chants : "O Moulay Bouchaïb, ô toi qui donnes les garçons..." "*Ahya Moulay Bouchaïb, Ahya âttaye laâzara.*" Les méthodes pour concevoir un enfant mâle sont souvent plus prosaïques, et consistent en recettes (...)." ²⁹ (109)
- "La tradition pèse encore très lourd. Elle se fait sentir de façon tout aussi flagrante quand les femmes parlent du nombre d'enfants qu'elles souhaitent engendrer. Dans les milieux populaires, l'objectif de la grande famille est encore très présent et il est courant d'associer richesses et descendance (...)." ³⁰ (110)
- "D'autre part, comme dans tous les pays du Tiers-monde, de nombreux enfants représentent un potentiel de travail pour les parents et l'assurance de ne pas s'acheminer vers une vieillesse totalement démunie." (110)
- "La mère y voit quant à elle un gage de stabilité : les enfants lient le mari qui en estime davantage son épouse, et c'est une manière "d'alourdir ses ailes et lui donner assez de soucis pour éviter qu'il n'aille chercher d'autres femmes, et dépenser ses économies pour son propre agrément..." (110)
- "La hantise de la stérilité féminine n'a rien d'étonnant dans le contexte social, puisque l'Islam, tout comme le judaïsme, est une religion populationniste : le Coran recommande le mariage³¹ et le Prophète demandait aux croyants de se multiplier ; la raison essentielle en était l'expansion de la nouvelle religion à l'aide d'une armée importante en effectif humain. Aujourd'hui, l'abondance des enfants apparaît comme une faveur du ciel alors que la stérilité est une déchéance qui mène bien souvent l'épouse à la répudiation." (111)

²⁷ Perron, dans *Femmes arabes avant et depuis l'islamisme*, Librairie nouvelle, Paris et Tessier éd., Alger, 1858, (44) cite la réponse de Hind, l'une des quatre femmes sages de l'Arabie ancienne, au sujet de l'excellente femme : "L'excellente femme est celle qui a un fils dans son sein, qui conduit un autre fils à la main et dont encore un autre suit ses pas."

²⁸ Aux pages 107 et 108, Nâamane-Guessous donne les arguments qu'utilisent les femmes de nos jours pour justifier cette prédilection.

²⁹ Ici suit toute une série de recettes rapportées par Nâamane-Guessous, telle la recette qui consiste en graines de cresson alénois dans du lait salé, le tout mélangé avec un jaune d'œuf ou bien une guêpe mâle enrobée de miel. (109).

³⁰ Voir le Coran, "Noé" LXXI : 11, "La caverne" XVIII : 44 et "Le bétail" VI : 152.

³¹ Voir le Coran, "La lumière" XXIV : 32.

- “Les moyens de remédier à la stérilité sont remarquablement variés et datent d’une longue tradition ; Suyuti, exégète³² du quinzième siècle, n’en cite pas moins de quarante : ils procèdent d’un mélange de recettes magiques et de gestes rituels.”³³
- “Le problème de la contraception (...) préoccupe les êtres humains depuis au moins vingt-trois siècles lorsque Aristote préconisait l’emploi de l’huile de cèdre comme contraceptif. (...) ; le Coran ne donne aucun avis sur la contraception. (...) L’état marocain a adopté quant à lui une politique de planning familial depuis le Plan quinquennal de 1968 – 1972 ; la loi sur la vente des produits contraceptifs a été en conséquence assouplie.”³⁴ (112)
- L’idée que se font certains hommes de la virilité n’est pas favorable à la diffusion de la contraception, et les accouchements successifs de leurs épouses sont pour certains un sujet d’orgueil (...).” (115)
- “Les méthodes que l’on peut qualifier de traditionnelles sont, par opposition aux méthodes actuelles, très prisées.”³⁵

La polygamie:

- Elle semble avoir toujours existé, en Arabie préislamique comme ailleurs : les prophètes et messagers des religions Abraham, Moïse, David, Salomon ont eu plusieurs épouses.
- La communauté musulmane avait perdu beaucoup d’hommes à la suite du désastre d’Ouhoud en l’an 3 de l’Hégire et la polygamie permettait à ces femmes de trouver un foyer et de ne pas recourir à la prostitution.
- L’Islam limite le nombre de femmes à 4 mais ne les impose pas au croyant.
- C’est le verset IV : 3 du Coran qui autorise la polygamie mais qui met en même temps le croyant en garde contre les risques d’injustice et d’inégalité entre les épouses, avertissant que l’équité absolue est une chimère.
- Ce concept d’égalité est repris par le code du statut personnel marocain (article 35), code qui interdit la polygamie si une injustice est à craindre (article 30).
- Nâamane-Guessous distingue 6 formes de polygamie selon les motivations de l’époux:
 1. pour cause de stérilité; l’épouse ne remplit pas son rôle de génitrice ou bien elle n’a donné le jour qu’à des filles qui ne comptent pas dans la descendance,
 2. pour cause d’amortissement; l’épouse se dégrade par l’âge ou par les maladies,

³² Commentateur, interprète en philologie et doctrine d’un texte dont le sens, la portée sont obscurs ou sujets à discussion.

³³ Nâamane-Guessous en détaille quatre (111) mais non pas celui qui sert d’arrière-plan à la nouvelle de Lina Moulay “La chamelle de Moulay Brahim”, Moulay, L. (75-85).

³⁴ Décret Royal du 1/7/1967, abrogeant le Dahir du 10/7/1939, Bull. off. N° 2854 du 12/7/1967, p. 773.

³⁵ Aux pages 115 – 117 Nâamane-Guessous les explicite. La sociologue constate ensuite que l’avortement pose le problème du risque physiologique et de l’interdit moral, étant strictement condamné par la loi musulmane (comme par la loi juïdique et chrétienne) : “toute âme est chère à Dieu” (117).

3. pour des considérations économiques; surtout en milieu rural les épouses et leur progéniture représentent la main-d'œuvre gratuite,
 4. la polygamie de luxe lorsque les qualités morales ou physiques de l'épouse font défaut,
 5. pour disponibilité sexuelle,
 6. après adultère ou *maktoub* (écrit dans le destin, comme le prétendent certains hommes). Phénomène récent et de plus en plus fréquent. Grossesse inattendue ou crainte de l'illicite, l'homme cède à la pression exercée sur lui par la jeune femme qui le pousse à légaliser leur relation adultère.
- Les réactions des femmes varient selon qu'on a affaire à la première ou à la deuxième femme.
 - Les possibilités de révolte sont réduites lorsque la femme n'a pas de qualification professionnelle, aucun capital pour subvenir à ses besoins ou à ceux de ses enfants.
 - "Le premier scandale passé, la résignation est le comportement le plus courant; le besoin de sécurité est le plus fort." (126)
 - L'article 30 du code du statut personnel stipule que les 2 époux doivent présenter un certificat de célibat lors de l'établissement de l'acte de mariage. Si l'époux est déjà marié, il doit en informer sa future épouse. En réalité, le mari use souvent de fraude pour obtenir ce certificat de célibat ; il est donc passible de la loi mais de tels procès sont rarissimes à cause de l'ignorance des femmes de leurs droits.
 - "La réunion des coépouses n'est pas aussi courante qu'autrefois." (128)
 - La polygamie n'est plus un phénomène social répandu dans le Maroc d'aujourd'hui. (6,6% en 1952, 3% en 1960). Les ménages n'ont pourtant pas gagné en stabilité ; souvent un homme épouse plusieurs femmes l'une après l'autre. La répudiation permet à l'homme de changer de partenaire, ce qu'il préfère car il n'en est pas encombré dans un foyer bigame.
 - L'Islam essaie de canaliser les pulsions sexuelles par les liens du mariage : la fornication (*zina*) est un acte illicite et punissable. L'homme et la femme mariés adultères doivent être lapidés.
 - La femme trompée s'y résigne craignant une éventuelle répudiation ou recourt à la sorcellerie qui compense le manque de communication au sein du couple et le manque de courage de ces femmes qui n'affrontent pas ouvertement leurs problèmes.
 - "L'indulgence dont bénéficie l'époux adultère n'a aucun équivalent en ce qui concerne l'épouse adultère." (134)

La femme seule:

- "La société marocaine ne fait pas de place aux femmes sans homme, leur existence même est source de scandale ..." (137)³⁶
- La répudiation (*attalaq*) est un droit exclusif du mari (voir les projets de réforme récents) ; le *khul'* permet à la femme de racheter sa liberté à son mari

³⁶ A ce titre voir le témoignage de Rachida Yacoubi, *Ma Vie, mon cri*, EDDIF : Casablanca, 1995.

en le payant pour qu'il la répudie (article de la Moudouwana) mais la décision ultime demeure le droit exclusif du mari. La formule "tu es répudiée deux ou trois fois" qui permettait d'enregistrer en une seule fois une double ou triple répudiation a été abolie. En revanche que le divorce (*attaliq*) est un acte judiciaire. La femme peut demander le divorce si:

1. son mari ne l'entretient pas,
2. s'il est affligé d'un vice rédhibitoire telles que la folie, la lèpre, la tuberculose, une maladie d'ordre sexuel,
3. si elle est maltraitée,
4. pour absence prolongée (plus d'un an),

Dans la pratique, les femmes ont plus de mal à obtenir le divorce que ne pourraient le laisser penser les termes de la loi. Elles connaissent mal leurs droits, les hommes peuvent s'opposer à la demande de divorce, la procédure judiciaire est lente, coûteuse. Il semblerait qu'il n'en soit pas de même pour les hommes (enquête publiée à Casablanca en 1984 constate un peu plus de 6 divorces ou de répudiations pour 10 mariages).

- La femme qui divorce perd presque la totalité de ses biens qui restent dans la maison conjugale (voir Yacoubi), perçoit rarement un soutien financier pour elle-même ou ses enfants et préfère souvent le *khul'*, plus rapide et moins coûteux.
- Le Coran ("Les Femmes" IV : 23, 24, 25) ainsi que l'article 39 du code du statut personnel stipulent clairement les modalités du partage des biens des époux à la dissolution du mariage mais une grande partie de ces droits est généralement passée sous silence.
- La répudiation menace la femme stérile surtout. Ce n'est que quand le mari se convainc que la stérilité vient de lui que le recours à l'adoption peut être envisagé ; très souvent l'enfant adopté est issu de la famille ou de l'entourage proche du couple. Le mari peut aussi répudier sa femme parce qu'il ne la désire plus, ou parce qu'il s'est enflammé d'une autre, ou quand son mariage lui a été imposé. La répudiation se fait chez les '*adûls* où, moyennant la somme de 200 dirhams, le mari peut annuler son contrat de mariage. L'article 81 de la Moudouwana stipule que le juge doit aviser la répudiée dans un délai ne dépassant pas les 15 jours, mais beaucoup de femmes ne sont pas informées à temps et ne sont pas convoquées par les '*adûls* qui devraient les informer qu'elles ont droit au "don de consolation" (*mut'a*) que le mari est tenu de verser à chaque fois qu'il prend l'initiative de divorcer (article 60). La rupture du lien conjugal place la femme dans une position d'infériorité à tous les niveaux (juridique, financier, social). C'est d'habitude la femme qui a la garde des enfants (article 99 de la Moudouwana) et le mari est tenu de lui verser une pension alimentaire (article 126). Il est cependant tout à fait exceptionnel qu'une pension soit versée.

Annexure 3
Linguistic Objectives for A1 & A2 levels

Week	Linguistic Objectives
1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> irregular verbs: <i>être, s'appeler, lire, écrire, dormir</i> in present tense of the indicative - <i>er</i> regular verbs in present tense of the indicative definite & indefinite articles masculine & feminine singular form nouns & adjectives masculine & feminine singular form prepositions with names of towns & countries questions with <i>qui</i>
2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>c'est un / c'est une</i> + noun + adjective, <i>c'est</i> + place, <i>c'est</i> + adjective nouns & adjectives plural form numbers 0 – 100 partitive articles & expressions of quantity irregular verbs <i>avoir, vouloir, pouvoir, connaître</i> in present indicative tense possessive adjectives singular & plural forms interrogative adjective masculine & feminine singular forms
3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>à & de</i> for possession masculine & feminine, singular & plural possessive adjectives introduction to <i>passé composé</i> compound past tense negation irregular verbs <i>prendre, faire, dire, ouvrir, aller, partir</i> in present tense of the indicative disjunctive pronouns in the singular form prepositions with days & seasons
4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> regular – <i>ir</i> & - <i>re</i> verbs in the present indicative tense irregular verbs <i>boire, savoir, offrir</i> in present indicative tense prepositions of place plural form of definite & indefinite articles, nouns & adjectives negation <i>ne / n'...pas + de / d'</i> questions with <i>qu'est-ce que</i>
5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> questions with <i>comment, combien de / d'</i> possessive adjectives demonstrative adjectives relative pronoun <i>qui</i> definite & partitive articles negations <i>ne ...jamais / rien / personne / plus</i> compound nouns
6	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> irregular verbs <i>croire, mettre, voir, découvrir, - cer / - ger / - yer</i> disjunctive pronouns in the plural form questions with <i>où</i> verb + noun verb + infinitive <i>oui / si / non / moi aussi / moi non plus</i> adverbs

7	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>passé composé</i> in the affirmative • infinitive • prepositions of place • direct object pronouns
8	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ordinals • impersonal verb forms • direct object pronouns • recent past tense
9	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>passé composé</i> with <i>avoir</i> or <i>être</i> • <i>passé composé</i> of irregular verbs
10	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>passé composé</i> in the negative form • expressions signifying “since”, “ago” : <i>depuis</i> / <i>ça fait</i> / <i>il y a</i> • immediate future tense
11	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the future indicative of regular – <i>er</i> verbs, <i>être</i> and <i>avoir</i> • the present conditional tense of the indicative • the pronoun <i>on</i> • relative pronouns <i>qui</i> and <i>que</i> / <i>qu’</i>
12	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the imperfect tense of the indicative • <i>passé composé</i> / imperfect tense of the indicative
13	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the present conditional tense of the indicative • prepositions of place • the pronouns <i>en</i> and <i>y</i> • the use of <i>ce que</i> / <i>si</i> / and repetition of the interrogative after the verb <i>dire</i> • interrogative adjectives & pronouns
14	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • affirmative & negative imperative forms • direct and indirect verb constructions • direct and indirect object pronouns • affirmative & negative infinitive forms • pronominal verbs in the present indicative tense • future indicative tense of regular – <i>ir</i> , - <i>re</i> verbs & irregular verbs • <i>si</i> & <i>quand</i> + future indicative tense
15	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • reported speech in the present • comparative & superlative forms • direct and indirect object pronouns • future indicative tense
16	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • immediate future tense • time indicators • <i>si</i> + imperfect, main verb conditional present
17	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • demonstrative adjectives • place of adjective • relative pronouns <i>où</i> and <i>dont</i> • possessive pronouns
18	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • indefinite adjectives & pronouns • meanings of <i>devoir</i> + infinitive according to verb tense • modal verbs
19	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • numbers above 100 • present tense of the subjunctive

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>ne ... que</i>
20	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • reported speech in the past & tense concordance • gerundive • pronominal verbs in the <i>passé composé</i> • agreement of the past participle
21	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • double pronouns • pluperfect indicative tense • <i>ce qui / ce que</i>
22	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • indicative or subjunctive ? • <i>passé composé</i> of the subjunctive
23	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>avant de / après</i> + past infinitive • future anterior indicative tense with prepositions of time
24	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • passive voice in all verb tenses
25	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • past conditional tense of the indicative • <i>si</i> + pluperfect, main verb past conditional tense

Annexure 4
Linguistic Objectives for B1 & B2 levels
Second year of study – levels B1 Linguistic Objectives a Linguistic Objectives

Week	Linguistic Objectives
1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> definite, indefinite, partitive articles expressions of quantity
2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> nouns, adjectives & adverbs interjections
3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> present tense of regular & irregular verbs
4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> compound past & imperfect tenses
5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> preterite tense <i>passé simple</i>
6	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> pluperfect & past anterior tenses
7	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> immediate future, future, future anterior tenses
8	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> value of verb tenses in discourse: present, compound past tense, imperfect, pluperfect tenses time indicators including <i>dans, dès, il y a, depuis, cela fait ... que, au bout de</i>
9	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> progression in discourse: present, compound past tense, preterite tense richness of discourse: imperfect, pluperfect tenses
10	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> imperative in the affirmative and negative forms imperative in the affirmative and negative forms + pronouns subject, object, disjunctive pronouns; double pronouns & word order
11	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> conditional present & conditional past tenses sentences with <i>si</i> indefinite pronouns including <i>ne ... personne, nul, tout, chacun, rien, quelqu' un</i>
12	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> indicative & subjunctive moods conjunctions followed by the subjunctive <i>le ne explétif</i>
13	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> present & compound past subjunctive imperfect subjunctive (passive knowledge)
14	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ordering & forbidding
15	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> present participle verbal adjective gerund temporal expressions including <i>avant que, après que, dès que, jusqu'à ce que, quand, en attendant que, pendant que, tandis que</i>
16	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> agreement of past participle time indicators including <i>d'abord, ensuite, et puis, toujours, rarement, ne ... guère, tout de suite, autrefois</i> substitution techniques relative pronouns <i>ce que, ce qui</i>
17	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> reported speech noun phrase
18	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> passive form pronominal verbs used for passive voice

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> pronoun <i>on</i>
19	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> conditional present and past tenses sentences with <i>si</i> indicative, conditional or subjunctive?
20	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> meanings of <i>devoir</i> + infinitive according to verb tense impersonal verb forms modal verbs verbs + preposition + infinitive
21	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> place of adjectives & adverbs adverbial modalisation simple & compound relative pronouns
22	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> opposition & concession
23	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> cause & consequence
24	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> comparatives & superlatives discourse articulators
25	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> compound nouns prefixes & suffixes neologisms

Annexure 5

Genesis of the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR)*

The *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR)* is the result of extensive research and ongoing work on communicative objectives, as exemplified by the popular 'Threshold level' concept. From the mid-1970s onwards, specialists worked out an operational model for those abilities which specific groups of learners (tourists, businesspersons, migrants, and so on) require for using a language for independent communication in a country in which this language is the everyday medium for communication. By identifying thus these groups' language needs, specialists were able to pinpoint the knowledge and know-how required for attaining a communication 'threshold'. The first specification of this 'threshold level' was formulated for the English language (*Threshold level*, 1975), quickly followed by French (*Un Niveau Seuil*, 1976). These two instruments have been used *de facto* as models for the same type of reference instruments that were produced subsequently for other languages, but have been adapted to suit the peculiar features of each language. The threshold levels have also gradually changed but they still play a major role in language teaching in Europe, often serving as the basis for new national teaching programmes. They help make textbooks more motivating and facilitate development of more realistic and transparent evaluation systems. A compilation of *Introductions and Prefaces* to the series of level descriptions developed over a period of 30 years (1975 to 2005) provides an insight into how this tool has been developed and has been adapted for individual languages. The specifications were developed by national teams, and in the majority of cases, with guidance from Dr J.L.M. Trim, Director of Council of Europe Modern Languages projects from 1975 to 1997.

Some of the instruments produced within the Council of Europe have, then, played a decisive role in the teaching of so-called 'foreign' languages by promoting methodological innovations and new approaches to designing teaching programmes. They have facilitated a fresh approach to communicating these teaching methods in a manner potentially more conducive to operational appropriation of unknown languages and therefore to freedom of movement of persons and ideas. Furthermore, in order to meet teaching and certification requirements, the level concept as defined

has been extended to cover specification of levels lying immediately below and above the threshold level. In the light of developments in this field, other levels were formulated for a number of languages, paying particular attention, for instance, to socio-cultural components or learner autonomy, by pinpointing a possible definition for the concept of 'learning to learn'. A lower level (*Waystage*) was created for English, as was a level situated above the threshold, also starting with English (*Vantage Level*). Other language versions then followed. The three ascending level descriptions (*Waystage*, *Threshold* and *Vantage*) provided a basis for designing programmes and producing multimedia courses and were developed in parallel with the *Common European Framework of Reference*³⁷. Launched in 2001, the *CEFR* marked a major turning point in describing specifications of language-learning targets; no longer designated as 'Threshold' or 'Vantage level', they were described by the appropriate level of the *CEFR* scale (A1 to C2)³⁸. Learning target specifications (for the threshold and/or other levels) have been produced or updated for Basque, Catalan, Czech, Danish, Dutch, English, Estonian, French, Galician, German, Greek, Hungarian, Italian, Latvian, Lithuanian, Maltese, Norwegian, Portuguese, Romanian, Russian, Slovene, Spanish, and Welsh. Thus the *CEFR* provides a basis for the mutual recognition of language qualifications, thereby facilitating educational and occupational mobility.

Since November 2001, when a European Union Council Resolution recommended the use of this Council of Europe instrument in setting up systems of validation of language competences, it is increasingly used in the reform of national curricula and by international consortia for the comparison of language certificates. This is undoubtedly because the *CEFR* is a document which describes in a comprehensive manner the competences necessary for communication, the related knowledge and skills and the situations and domains of communication. It is of particular interest to course-designers, textbook-writers, testers, teachers and teacher trainers - in fact to all who are directly involved in language teaching and testing. It facilitates a clear definition of teaching and learning objectives and methods and provides the necessary tools for assessment of proficiency. The *CEFR* has become a

³⁷ These proficiency levels constitute one of the origins of the six-level scale of the *CEFR*.

³⁸ However, I believe it useful to retain a descriptive title for each stage as such titles communicate immediately to non-specialists some notion of linguistic attainment, namely the titles used by the *Alliance française de Paris*: Breakthrough (A1), Waystage (A2), Threshold (B1), Vantage (B2), Autonomy – effective, operational proficiency (C1), and Mastery (C2).

key reference document and valuable tool for educational and professional mobility. It is now available in over 30 language versions and has become a common reference instrument for organising language teaching and certification in many member States. The *CEFR* is based, then, on many achievements and has developed a description of the process of mastering an unknown language by type of competence and sub-competence, using descriptors for each competence or sub-competence. Of particular interest to language teachers in South Africa is the fact that these descriptors were created without reference to any specific language, a guarantee then of their relevance and across-the-board applicability. The descriptors specify progressive mastery of each skill, which, as stated earlier, is graded on a six-level scale (A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, C2). Since these descriptors appeared to some language practitioners, curriculum designers and textbook compilers to be excessively broad, there arose a new generation of reference descriptions (in groups of six) for individual languages and based on the *CEFR* level descriptors: it is a case of identifying the forms of a given language (words, grammar, and so on), mastery of which corresponds to the communicational, socio-linguistic, formal and other competences defined by the *CEFR*. These transpositions of the *CEFR* into a given language are known as Reference Level Descriptions (RLDs) for national and regional languages. The Council of Europe has opted for helping to produce these instruments to complement the *CEFR* as part of its mainstream work.

Annexure 6
Reference Level Descriptions for the
Common European Framework of Reference for Languages

A1: The A1 elementary foreign-language user can understand and use familiar, daily expressions and simple statements related to concrete needs; he can introduce himself or someone else and ask and answer questions related to domicile, family, or belongings; he can communicate in simple language if his interlocutor cooperates and speaks clearly and simply.

A2: The A2-level foreign-language user can understand whole sentences and frequently-used expressions when these concern his immediate environment (personal or family information, purchases, or work); he can communicate simply and directly on familiar matters and describe simply his educational background, his immediate environment and needs.

B1: The B1 speaker of the foreign language can understand the essence of what is being said provided that the topics are familiar (work, school, leisure) and clear, standard language is used; he is capable of getting by in most situations if travelling in the foreign country in which the language is used. He can speak simply and coherently on familiar topics and issues that interest him; he can recount an event, an experience, a dream, describe his hopes or aspirations and explain a plan or idea briefly.

B2: The B2 speaker of the foreign language can understand the essential notions in a complicated text, whether concrete or abstract, including technical discussions related to his field; he can communicate some spontaneity and ease so that a conversation with a native speaker of the language is neither awkward for himself or his interlocutor; he can express himself clearly and in detail on a wide range of subjects, express an opinion on current affairs and explain the positive and negative sides of different options.

C1: The C1 can understand a wide range of long and demanding texts and grasp implicit meaning. He can express himself spontaneously and fluently without noticeably searching for words. In his social, academic or professional life, he uses language effectively and flexibly; he is able to speak on complex subjects clearly and coherently; his discourse is organised, cogent and coherent.

C2: The C2 speaker of the foreign language has no difficulty in understanding practically everything that he hears and reads. He can summarise coherently factual content and viewpoints from a variety of written and oral sources. He can converse spontaneously, fluently and precisely and can convey nuanced meaning regarding complex subjects.

(Conseil de la Coopération culturelle. Comité de l'éducation. Division des langues vivantes. Strasbourg. 2000: 25).

The final level (C2) has been omitted from the proposed undergraduate model for *FLE*; I suggest it be retained for postgraduate study because of the near-native mastery that it involves (see Part Three, page 38).

University of Cape Town

Annexure 7

Continuous Assessment – Results

2007	1st year	2 nd year	3rd year	Yes	No	The same	Don't know
Level of study							
No of questionnaires distributed	67	31	36				
No of questionnaires returned	30	22	28				
1. Does the system of continuous assessment (CA) enable you to monitor better your progress?				24 20 24	1 2 2	4 0 1	1 0 1
2. With CA do you work harder during the semester than with examinations-based courses?				22 15 25	2 3 2	6 4 0	0 0 1
3. Does CA enable you to time-manage more effectively?				27 9 17	1 10 6	2 3 5	0 0 0
4. Do you believe that you make more progress with CA?				22 16 20	2 3 5	6 3 3	0 0 0
5. Does CA provide a truer reflection of your knowledge than assessment by examinations only?				19 12 23	1 5 0	9 4 5	1 1 0
6. Does CA provide a truer reflection of your abilities than assessment by examinations only?				19 18 26	4 2 1	6 1 1	1 1 0
7. Does CA provide a truer reflection of your performance in relation to other students than assessment by examinations only?				19 15 17	7 3 7	2 3 3	2 1 1
8. Would you prefer to be assessed by examination only for French?				2 3 2	20 12 22	7 5 4	1 2 0

Annexure 8
Continuous Assessment – results in %

2007	1st year	2nd year	3rd year	Yes	No	The same	Don't know
Level of study							
No of questionnaires distributed	67	31	36				
No of questionnaires returned	30	22	28				
1. Does the system of continuous assessment (CA) enable you to monitor better your progress?				80% 91% 86%	3.5% 9% 7%	13% 0% 3.5%	3.5% 0% 3.5%
2. With CA do you work harder during the semester than with examinations-based courses?				73% 68% 89%	7% 14% 7%	20% 18% 0%	0% 0% 4%
3. Does CA enable you to time-manage more effectively?				90% 41% 61%	4% 45% 21%	6% 14% 18%	0% 0% 0%
4. Do you believe that you make more progress with CA?				73% 73% 71%	7% 13.5% 18%	20% 13.5% 11%	0% 0% 0%
5. Does CA provide a truer reflection of your knowledge than assessment by examinations only?				63% 55% 82%	3.5% 23% 18%	30% 18% 0%	3.5% 4% 0%
6. Does CA provide a truer reflection of your abilities than assessment by examinations only?				63% 82% 93%	20% 9% 3.5%	13% 4.5% 3.5%	4% 4.5% 0%
7. Does CA provide a truer reflection of your performance in relation to other students than assessment by examinations only?				63% 68% 61%	23% 14% 25%	7% 14% 11%	7% 4% 3%
8. Would you prefer to be assessed by examination only for French?				6% 14% 7%	66% 55% 79%	23% 23% 14%	5% 8% 0%

Annexure 9
Continuous Assessment Student Comments³⁹

Comments attesting to the importance of thorough administration:

1. We don't have course outline thus we never sure on test dates or assignments hand-ins. Sometimes we only get told about a test 2 or even 1 day in advance.
2. I think that the system of continuous assessment is efficient and should continue but students need to have a clear outline of the course with all the dates for tests and assignments. But course outline is very much needed!
3. I think that a system of continuous assessment is efficient and should continue but students need to have a clear outline of the course with all the dates for tests and assignments.
4. But we don't know what % each task is for.
5. Too much work, essays, tests to be able to work hard on all of them.
6. Too much work for marks and too many subsets of the course.
7. End of year mark can be a surprise – we don't know how the marks are broken down.
8. But it would help if we had a course outline!
9. (...) sometimes the term-time workload is too heavy.
10. Only when we are told at the beginning of the term when tests and assignments are due (this is not usually the case).
11. One does not know exactly what one's exact grades are.

Comments of students who prefer assessment by examination to continuous assessment:

1. Sometimes a lack of time prevents you from performing as well as you would like to.
2. Most class tests are not approached with the same attitude as exams, leading to weaker efforts.

³⁹ These comments are taken from student responses to the 26/08/2007 anonymous questionnaire.

3. If you don't remember everything at the end then the class was worthless.
4. We do not feel that we need to retain the information we receive during the term.
5. Some people have more time than others, some are doing less courses. This difference becomes less during formal exams.
6. It's easier to ask for help during the year.⁴⁰

Comments of students who prefer continuous assessment to assessment by examination:

1. CA boosts marks. More assured of my ability than knowledge. Keep CA!
2. I think continuous assessment is more reflective of my understanding of French than an exam.
3. I much prefer continuous assessment – I think it's a fairer way to assess work.
4. I think one can only learn a language through constant exposure to it and practice. Hence I feel continuous assessment is the best option.
5. CA = less strenuous parrot-learning and more centred, controlled 'honed-in' learning – for a language, I think CA is best.
6. I find continuous assessment a far more pleasing, structured and fair way of studying a language. I find exams impersonal and see them as a 'lazy' way to assess students – they should only be used in very big courses.
7. I believe all university courses should be assessed continuously, we learn more, it stays in our memories for longer and is less stressful.
8. I really think that this course, because of continuous assessment, is the only one of my courses truly reflecting my efforts and truly fair when it comes to my final mark. I really appreciate this system and hope it will be maintained.

⁴⁰ Interestingly, this first-year student, who would prefer assessment by examination only, seems to view asking for help as somehow being wrong; perhaps this could be attributed to an unsophisticated understanding of the teaching-learning relationship. Cf. 238.

Annexure 10

Example of a Pedagogical Activity using Open Questions

The pedagogical activity below (A2) is included to illustrate the type of document that lends itself to ‘open questions’, which are vital in fostering learner confidence, engendering spontaneous speech and creating learner desire. At A2 level, the document could be used in conjunction with the prescribed textbook, after the introduction of ‘venir’, to teach verbs that are conjugated similarly. Moreover, it aims to equip learners with the reading comprehensions skills required to “read short simple texts” (see **RE A2** of the *CEFR*, page 41 of Part Three).

Fiche pédagogique – Lesson plan

Objectifs:

- (1) **Linguistique:** les verbes formés sur ‘venir’ au présent de l’indicatif; éléments lexicaux touchant à la maladie
- (2) **Socio-culturel:** les soins médicaux; le rôle que joue la famille dans les cultures différentes

A2

<i>Vocabulaire</i>	
Quelque: approximativement, à peu près	Survenir (comme venir): commencer
Souffrir: endurer quelque chose de désagréable	Devenir (comme venir): changer, se transformer
À des degrés divers: plus ou moins	Prise (f) en charge: le fait d’assumer la responsabilité
Maladie (f) d’Alzheimer	Être démuné (-e): être perdu (-e)
Symptôme (m)	
Douloureux (-euse): qui fait mal	

- (1) *Mettez-vous en tandem.*
- (2) S’il n’y a pas moyen de projeter l’image à l’aide d’un tableau interactif, la distribuer en photocopie (1 par groupe de 2).



(3) *Regardez l'image. À deux, répondez aux questions suivantes: Qui sont ces personnes? Où sont-elles? Que font-elles? Et à quel moment? Et pourquoi?*

(4) *Mise en commun.*

While learners are formulating their hypotheses, the teacher moves among them, chatting naturally to them. During feedback, the variety of responses is extremely wide; since no hypothesis is wrong, learners speak with confidence when asked to justify their hypotheses. They are eager to know the origin of the image and what is really taking place; they are now motivated to read the accompanying text. After the dotted line, I include the remainder of the text to make it clear that the same support and initial, anticipatory activity can be used for varying levels. Moreover, it is clear that by adopting such an approach, even learners at the elementary level can engage with contemporary social issues by means of an authentic document, which has neither been manufactured nor made artificially easy (thereby avoiding the risk of 'aliteracy' to which I have referred on page 27 of Part Three), and the subject matter of which is current, socially relevant, and intellectually worthy of a Faculty of Humanities.

(5) *Distribuer le texte en entier:*

Same image

Dans l'un des sept centres d'accueil de jour parisiens, la danse est l'une des activités de resocialisation proposées aux malades, comme les ateliers chanson, poésie ou poterie.

Alain Aubert/Le Figaro

Quelque 800 000 personnes en France souffrent, à des degrés divers, de la maladie d'Alzheimer. Quand surviennent les premiers symptômes, les proches sont souvent démunis. La prise en charge du patient devient un problème douloureux. Quelques centres d'accueil de jour existent comme celui-ci, rue Falguière à Paris, dans le XVe arrondissement.

B1 & B2

Elle a le regard qui pétille. Camille (1), 83 ans, participe, avec trois autres personnes, à un atelier mémoire. Elles sont toutes atteintes d'un début de maladie d'Alzheimer. Et s'ingénient à reconnaître des bruits familiers diffusés par une chaîne stéréo : un aspirateur qui vrombit, une friteuse qui grésille, une pluie qui tombe à grosses gouttes... Un exercice destiné à stimuler concentration et attention, sous la houlette bienveillante de Séverine Rose, psychologue. L'appareil à CD ravit Pierre, 78 ans. "Il est vraiment bien cet appareil, je n'en avais jamais vu avant ; il est vraiment bien votre appareil...", répète-t-il en boucle. Puis la séance se corse. Il faut remplacer par écrit des blancs dans des phrases : "Blanche Neige et ses... nains" ; "Couper les cheveux en..." ; "Les... couleurs de l'arc-en-ciel"... Camille est la première à terminer. Un presque sans-faute, sauf pour les douze travaux d'Hercule, question ardue qui fait sécher les quatre participants.

Sa voisine, Angèle, 89 ans, coquette et élégante dans sa robe imprimée, a un peu plus de mal. Ses troubles auraient démarré, selon elle, après la mort de son chat adoré, un angora de 17 ans dont elle conserve les photos dans son sac à main. "Dur, dur quand on a des trous de mémoire qui gênent la vie de tous les jours", sourit-elle, tout en se remémorant des souvenirs lointains, du temps où elle était petite fille à la campagne, obligée de dormir à l'étable avec les vaches. "Car mon père, qui n'était pas mon père, ma mère m'ayant fabriquée avec un autre, me chassait de la maison...", raconte-t-elle. D'où son amour pour les animaux.

La psychologue met tout en oeuvre pour éviter de mettre en échec ses quatre protégés : "Ils sont bien souvent encore conscients de leurs difficultés." Son objectif, c'est de stimuler les fonctions cognitives qui leur restent autour du langage, du

raisonnement, de la reconnaissance auditive et visuelle et, plus globalement, de la mémoire. “Nous cherchons avant tout à leur redonner confiance.”

-

C1 & C2

“J’ai presque dix sur dix, se félicite Angèle, soulagée d’avoir su répondre à la plupart des questions. C’est bien mieux que de rester à la maison. Chez moi, je suis toute seule, alors je dors tout le temps.” Avec la satisfaction du devoir accompli, ils attendent impatiemment l’heure du déjeuner qu’ils vont prendre par petites tables de quatre, avant de participer l’après-midi à des activités de resocialisation. Stimulation motrice par remise en forme, gymnastique douce, voire danse ou tai-chi, parcours de marche, atelier chanson (Trenet, Tino Rossi, Aznavour), peinture, poterie, cuisine, atelier bien-être et relaxation (avec musique douce et diffuseur d’arômes), poésies et même informatique pour deux messieurs qui ne peuvent plus faire de phrases, mais ont conservé certaines facultés intellectuelles.

Ces activités sont dispensées par une équipe formée et motivée - psychologue psychomotricienne, ergothérapeute, infirmière, aides-soignantes, aides médico-psychologiques -, animée par une responsable, garante de la coordination. Un médecin gériatre assure le suivi médical. Vingt patients, autant d’hommes que de femmes (de 68 à 92 ans), fréquentent ce centre modèle, une à trois fois par semaine. Pour un coût proportionnel aux revenus, de 16,80 à 60 euros par jour, le département de Paris réglant la différence. Le transport vers le centre est pris en charge, à hauteur de 10 euros. Les vingt patients du centre souffrent de la maladie d’Alzheimer ou de troubles apparentés, dûment diagnostiqués, mais à des stades différents. Un tiers d’entre eux vivent encore seuls chez eux, tout en bénéficiant de diverses aides à domicile et en restant en contact avec leur famille. “Ils arrivent ici au bout d’un long parcours, trois à cinq ans après l’annonce du diagnostic, à un moment où leurs conjoints, enfants ou proches sont à bout, explique la jeune directrice, Marie-Laure Martin. “Se résoudre à pousser la porte d’un centre de jour leur est très difficile.”

Car ils pensent toujours être les seuls capables à s'en occuper correctement. Et à les comprendre, surtout en cas de troubles du langage. Pourtant, dans ce centre, chacun cherche à redonner au patient une image positive de lui-même.

Surmontant leurs premières réticences, les familles se sentent finalement rassurées.

L'existence de centres de jour repousse l'entrée en institution.

Surtout si l'entourage du malade a su mettre parallèlement en place, et à temps, différentes aides à domicile. Ce qui coûte cher. Malheureusement, le nombre de centres de jour en France est très insuffisant. Paris n'en compte que sept, trois autres sont sur le point d'ouvrir leurs portes. Le placement en institution spécialisée est donc l'ultime recours pour la majorité des familles. Souvent un crève-cœur. Qui plus est, à des prix souvent élevés. Les tarifs hébergement et dépendance, sans les soins, vont de 1 700 euros dans le public ou en associatif en province à 6 000 euros en privé pour la région parisienne.

Source: *Le Figaro*, 22/09/2007.

www.lefigaro.fr/reportage/20070922.FIG000000812_quand_survient_la_maladie_d_alzheimer.htm

(1) Les prénoms ont été changés

Annexure 11

Test Format for Listening Comprehension Skills at Advanced Level

SLL3060F & 3067H – Contrôle

Ecoute active

Nom:.....

No d'étudiant:.....

Date: le 20 avril 2006

Total des points : 20 (contenu 10, langue 10)

- **Première écoute :** *écoutez attentivement le texte ; n'écrivez rien mais concentrez-vous sur les idées principales et le déroulement logique du discours.*
- **Pendant les 5 minutes qui suivent la première écoute,** *commencez à ordonner ce que vous avez retenu.*
- **Lors de la deuxième écoute** *vous pouvez prendre note des éléments que vous jugez importants (chiffres, dates par exemple).*
- *Vous disposerez de 10 minutes pour rédiger (en français pour les non francophones, en anglais pour les francophones), le résumé du texte oral. Il s'agira de reconstituer le document oral de sorte à faire ressortir l'idée clé et les idées principales – vous ferez donc attention à bien lier ces idées par des mots de liaison convenables.*

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

[illegible]**avril 2006**

Annexure 12

Business French

Initial hand-out for advanced level third year language course

(language *tronc commun* for Business & Literary Streams)

2007 1^{er} semestre

SLL3060F & SLL3067H

Cours d'initiation à la traduction

1. Emploi du temps:

2 cours par semaine sur tout le semestre à raison de 1 cours le mardi (11h00 en Hoeri 3A) et 1 cours le jeudi (11h00 en Hoeri 3A).

2. Evaluation

Dans le courant du semestre vous serez amenés à préparer des textes avant de venir en cours, à faire des devoirs écrits, ainsi qu'à passer 1 contrôle. Tous ces travaux ainsi que l'état de votre préparation seront notés et feront partie de la note finale. *A la fin du semestre vous soumettrez à l'examinatrice externe un dossier contenant tous vos travaux (y compris votre travail de préparation).*

Contrôle continu (200 points)

- 3 devoirs (1 x 20, 1 x 30, 1 x 50 = 100 points) + état de préparation (50 points) + 1 contrôle (50 points)
- Les devoirs (qui doivent tous être tapés en double interligne et accompagnés d'une déclaration contre le plagiat et d'une bibliographie) ainsi que le contrôle sont obligatoires pour le *Duly Performed Certificate*.
- Il est obligatoire de respecter les dates limites précisées par le programme détaillé ci-dessous ; sauf accompagné d'un certificat de maladie, aucun devoir soumis après 13h00 le jour précisé par le programme ne sera noté : l'étudiant(e) se verra attribuer 0.
- Il est obligatoire d'assister à AU MOINS 80% des cours pour se voir attribuer son *Duly Performed Certificate*

3. Objectifs du cours

- acquisition de certaines notions de base théoriques propres au monde du traducteur professionnel,
- acquisition de compétences et de connaissances indispensables au traducteur,
- perfectionnement de 2 compétences linguistiques (compréhension orale et écrite – langue de départ, production écrite - langue cible).

A la fin du semestre vous serez capables de:

- comprendre à l’oral et à l’écrit des documents authentiques portant sur des thèmes d’actualité et en restituer l’essentiel
- faire une réflexion personnelle sur ces mêmes thèmes en faisant appel aux lexique et registre de langue appropriés
- faire une réflexion personnelle sur ce en quoi consiste l’activité traduisante,
- suivre les démarches préalables à la traduction proprement dite qu’entreprend tout traducteur / interprète professionnel,
- reconnaître diverses techniques de traduction / reformulation,
- vous servir de ces mêmes techniques afin de reformuler en français un texte non littéraire rédigé en français / rendre en anglais un texte non littéraire rédigé en français
- par ailleurs, travailler en binôme / trinôme dans un esprit de collégialité et aussi de façon indépendante

CONSULTEZ REGULIEREMENT LE PANNEAU D’AFFICHAGE DE LA SECTION DE FRANÇAIS. Tout éventuel changement au programme y sera affiché. Sachez que le programme détaillé*, même s’il vous sécurise, n’est pas exhaustif. Tout enseignement de qualité demande la possibilité de souplesse pour que l’enseignant(e) puisse mieux répondre aux besoins des apprenants.

*Here follows a semester planner with dates of lectures, time allocation for each theme, deadlines for assignments and tests.

Annexure 13
Business French

COURSE CONTENT OF 3RD YEAR BUSINESS FRENCH COURSE

SEMESTER 1
SLL3066H – 2007

Français des affaires

1. Emploi du temps:

3 cours par semaine sur toute l'année à raison de 2 cours le mardi (6 & 7 en Hum5.17) et 1 cours le jeudi (6 en Hum5.17).

2. Evaluation

- a. Dans le courant de l'année vous serez amenés à préparer des exercices, des exposés oraux, à faire des devoirs écrits, ainsi qu'à passer un contrôle. Tous ces travaux ainsi que votre participation en cours et en classe de conversation seront notés (80% de la note finale sur toute l'année). *A la fin du 2^e semestre vous soumettrez à l'examinatrice externe un dossier contenant tous vos travaux.*
- b. A la fin du 2^e semestre vous passerez un examen oral de 30 min (20% de la note finale) qui comportera 2 parties:
 - (i) la vente d'un produit de votre choix – 15 min (fruit d'un travail d'auto apprentissage fait au labo sur le cédérom *Négosphère*, 20 unités),
 - (ii) le résumé en français d'un article de presse rédigé en anglais touchant au monde des affaires, avec éventuel commentaire de graphiques – 15 min, 30 min de préparation. Lors des classes de conversation, Mlle Flora Djenadi vous aidera à acquérir les compétences et connaissances requises pour bien réussir l'examen oral.

3. Objectifs du cours

- a. perfectionnement des 4 compétences linguistiques (compréhension orale – et visuelle-, compréhension écrite, expression orale et expression écrite)
- b. acquisition du lexique propre au monde des affaires,
- c. maîtrise des structures grammaticales les plus souvent utilisées dans un contexte commercial,

- d. acquisition de certaines notions de base propres au monde des affaires,
- e. acquisition de compétences et de connaissances indispensables en entreprise.

4. Programme détaillé

- a. Compréhension audio-visuelle : +/- 1 cours par semaine, clips vidéo y inclus *le français des affaires par la vidéo*, Claude Le Ninan, Didier/Hatier 1993.
- b. Compréhension écrite, expression orale, production écrite : 2 cours par semaine + 1 classe de conversation, photocopié *Le français de l'entreprise* compilé par la section de français en collaboration avec la CCIP (nous tenons tout particulièrement à remercier Jean-Luc Penfornis et Michel Danilo) en 10 unités, chacune contenant des informations sur le thème ainsi que des structures grammaticales.

Sem		Mardi 6 & 7	Jeudi 6
	Enseignante	V.EVERSON	V.EVERSON
1	février	Travail audio-visuel Rechercher un emploi – engager du personnel, comprendre une petite annonce	Prise de contact; engager une conversation téléphonique; l'interrogation directe
2	mars	27. Travail audio-visuel Rechercher un emploi – engager du personnel, comprendre une petite annonce suite	Accueillir à l'aéroport et dans l'entreprise; courrier électronique
		06. Travail audio-visuel Trouver un emploi – comparer les petites annonces; la comparaison	Prendre et changer de rendez-vous; messages dans l'entreprise Devoir sur les petites annonces (20 points) à rendre avant 13h00
4		Travail audio-visuel Rechercher un emploi – poser sa candidature; rédiger une lettre de candidature	15. La lettre de candidature suite
5		Travail audio-visuel La lettre commerciale	La lettre commerciale suite Devoir sur messages et méls (20 points) à soumettre avant 13h00
6		27. Travail audio-visuel Rechercher un emploi – présenter un curriculum vitae	29. Voyage; le discours rapporté et l'impératif
		CONGÉ DE	PÂQUES

7	avril	Travail audio-visuel Rechercher un emploi – se présenter pour un entretien d’embauche	Faire du tourisme; le passé composé et l’imparfait ; le passif Devoir sur la lettre commerciale (20 points) à rendre avant 13h00
8		17. Travailler – s’informer sur le travail; connaître et défendre ses droits	19. Travailler – s’informer sur le travail suite
9		24. Travail audio-visuel Travailler – déterminer les motivations au travail; la comparaison	26. L’hôtel – réservations et réclamations
10	mai	Public Holiday Férié – fête du travail	03. Restauration – réservations, passer commande, faire des critiques Devoir sur la lettre de candidature (20 points) & le curriculum vitae (20 points) à soumettre avant 13h00
11		08. Travail audio-visuel Travailler – réussir sa carrière ; conseiller, déconseiller et démentir	Travailler – analyser des comportements; l’interrogation
12		15. Travail audio-visuel Analyser les données du travail	17. Analyser les données du travail suite; l’ordre, l’obligation et les consignes
13		Contrôle 50 points	24. Correction & bilan

SLL3066H 1^{er} semestre

Contrôle continu = 40% de la note finale (250 points)

- 5 devoirs (5 x 20 = 100 points) + 1 contrôle (50 points) + note de conversation (présence 30 + participation 30 + 40 prestation = 100 points)
- Les devoirs (qui doivent tous être tapés en double interligne – sauf si la consigne précise autrement – et accompagnés d’une déclaration contre le plagiat et d’une bibliographie) ainsi que le contrôle sont obligatoires pour le *Duly Performed Certificate*.
- Il est obligatoire de respecter les dates limites précisées par le programme détaillé ci-dessus ; sauf accompagné d’un certificat de maladie, aucun devoir soumis après 13h00

le jour précisé par le programme ne sera noté : l'étudiant Etats-Unis se verra attribuer 0.

- Il est obligatoire d'assister à AU MOINS 80% des cours pour se voir attribuer son *Duly Performed Certificate*

CONSULTEZ REGULIEREMENT LE PANNEAU D’AFFICHAGE DE LA SECTION DE FRANÇAIS. Tout éventuel changement au programme y sera affiché. Sachez que le programme détaillé, même s'il vous sécurise, n'est pas exhaustif. Tout enseignement de qualité demande la possibilité de souplesse pour que l'enseignant puisse mieux répondre aux besoins des apprenants.

Responsable du cours: V.M.Everson
021 650 2900

Beattie 206

Vanessa.Everson@uct.ac.za

Secrétaire: S. De Kock

021650 2895

Beattie 204

Sonja.DeKock@uct.ac.za

Enseignante responsable du cours de conversation:

F. Djenadi

021 650 2895 (secrétariat)

Beattie 214

Courriel à être précisé ultérieurement

VME Le Cap, février 2007

SEMESTER 2

ANNÉE UNIVERSITAIRE 2007 BUSINESS FRENCH – SLL3066H

**! CONSULTEZ REGULIEREMENT LE PANNEAU D’AFFICHAGE DE
LA SECTION DE FRANÇAIS**

Programme du deuxième semestre – SLL3066H

Semaine			mardi		jeudi	
	Enseignant		V.EVERSON B114		V.EVERSON B226	
18 (1)	juillet/ août	30 .	31. Travail audio- visuel: <i>Le français des affaires</i> , Claude Le Ninan. Découvrir l’entreprise (livre complémentaire p23): (1) classer	01.	02. Découvrir l’entreprise: (2) efiner (3) caractériser	03 .
19 (2)		06 .	07. Travail audio- visuel: <i>Le français des affaires</i> , Claude Le Ninan. Cahier d’exercices: Entreprises, découvrir l’entreprise, comparer des performances (livre complémentaire p. 15) ; le monde en réduit	08.	09. Férié : la fête de la femme	10 .
20 (3)		13 .	14. Travail audio- visuel: <i>Le français des affaires</i> , Claude Le Ninan. Cahier d’exercices: Faire une présentation: introduction, développement, conclusion & appréciation	15.	16. Présenter l’organisation de l’entreprise : (1) l’organigramme de l’entreprise (2) les responsables (3) les divers services	17 .
21 (4)		20 .	14. Travail audio- visuel: <i>Vivez les affaires</i> . Présenter la forme juridique de l’entreprise: les différentes formes juridiques des entreprises (l’EU, la SNC, la SARL, la SA)	22.	23. Présenter la forme juridique de l’entreprise : les différentes formes juridiques des entreprises (l’EU, la SNC, la SARL, la SA) – suite	24 .

22 (5)		27 .	28. Travail audio-visuel: <i>Vivez les affaires</i> . Présenter la forme juridique de l'entreprise : étude de cas	29.	30. Présenter la forme juridique de l'entreprise : étude de cas – suite. Résumer un texte	31 .
23 (6)	sept.	03 .	04. Travail audio-visuel : <i>Vivez les affaires</i> . Révisions : recherche d'emploi, lettre de candidature, rédiger un CV (cahier d'exercices pp. 33 – 36).	05.	06. La création d'entreprise (livre complémentaire p. 30) : (1) motivations (2) obstacles (3) prétextes (4) sondages * Devoir 1 à rendre le vendredi 07 septembre 13h00 – présentation de l'entreprise + son organigramme (30 points)	07 .*
			C O N G É	D E	P R I N T E M P S	
24 (7)		17 .	18. Travail audio-visuel : <i>Vivez les affaires</i> . La création d'entreprise : (5) les règles d'or du créateur d'entreprise (6) l'esprit d'entreprise (7) les qualités de patron	19.	20. Corrigé du devoir 1. Connaître et défendre ses droits (livre complémentaire p. 17)	21 .
25 (8)	Fête du Patri-moine	24 .	25. Travail audio-visuel : <i>Vivez les affaires</i> . Résumé de texte	26.	27. Résumé de texte	28 .
26 (9)	oct.	01 .	02. Travail audio-visuel : <i>Vivez les affaires</i> . La création d'entreprise : (7) étude du projet - produit / service - marché	03.	04. La création d'entreprise : (7) suite : - local commercial - étude financière. Devoir 2 à rendre le vendredi 5 octobre 13h00–résumé 20 points	05 .
27 (10)		08 .	09. Travail audio-visuel : <i>Vivez les affaires</i> . La création d'entreprise :	10.	11. Corrigé du résumé. Diriger l'entreprise (livre complémentaire p. 35). Organiser (livre complémentaire p. 41).	12 .

			(8) se mettre à son compte - les étapes de la création - publier les statuts - trouver un lieu d'implantation.			
28 (11)		15	16. Travail audio-visuel : <i>Vivez les affaires</i> . Chercher des opportunités (livre complémentaire pp. 33 & 39) : - le travail - répartir les tâches Révisions : condition + hypothèse, discours rapporté, concordance des temps, subjonctif (Cahier d'exercices pp. 29 – 32).	17.	18. Points de vue : argumenter - le chômage - la mondialisation. Financer et faire des comptes (livre complémentaire p. 54).	19
29 (12)		22	23. Contrôle Compréhension écrite – 30 pts Résumé – 20 pts	24.	25. Corrigé du contrôle	26
30 (13)		29	30. ORAUX : les dates définitives seront précisées plus tard dans le semestre.	31.	Attendez d'en avoir la confirmation avant de payer votre billet d'avion etc.	

Objectifs du cours :

En plus des savoirs tels que le programme détaillé les précise, à la fin du semestre vous aurez aussi acquis certains savoir faire ; vous saurez classer, caractériser, définir, comparer, commenter un sondage, conseiller, exprimer l'hypothèse, raconter, indiquer le chemin de la création de l'entreprise, persuader, dissuader, présenter l'entreprise à l'aide d'organigramme et de graphiques⁴¹, résumer en français à l'oral ainsi qu'à l'écrit un texte rédigé en français et / ou en anglais, ordonner, et argumenter.

Contrôle continu

= 80% de la note finale

⁴¹ Vous savez déjà rédiger les documents suivants : télécopie / fax, mél, lettre commerciale, lettre de candidature, CV

Examen oral

= 20% de la note finale	= 100 points
Présentation de l'entreprise (+ fiche de présentation & organigramme) (devoir 1)	= 30 points
Compréhension écrite – contrôle	= 30 points
2 x résumés (2x 20 points : devoir 2 + contrôle)	= 40 points
Cours de conversation sur toute l'année (présence, participation, prestation)	= 100 points
Total des points =	300 points

! Les devoirs (qui doivent tous être tapés en double interligne et accompagnés d'une déclaration contre le plagiat ainsi que d'une bibliographie) **et les contrôles sont obligatoires,**

! Il est obligatoire de respecter les dates limites telles qu'elles figurent sur le programme détaillé ; sauf accompagné d'un certificat de maladie, aucun devoir soumis après 13h00 le jour précisé par le programme ne sera noté : l'étudiant se verra attribuer 0 point,

! Il est obligatoire d'assister à AU MOINS 80% des cours pour se voir attribuer son *Duly Performed Certificate*

! N'oubliez pas d'aller travailler une fois par semaine au laboratoire de langues (A24) le CD Rom *Négosphère*. Les séances de laboratoire ne sont pas surveillées ; elles sont néanmoins obligatoires : il s'agit de l'auto apprentissage où l'objectif est de travailler à son propre rythme afin de préparer l'examen oral.

Responsable du cours : V.M.Everson
650 2900
Beattie 206
Vanessa.Everson@uct.ac.za

Secrétaire :
S. de Kock
650 2895
Beattie 204
Sonja.DeKock@uct.ac.za

VME 26/VI/2007

Annexure 14

Pedagogical Activity for Business French (compiled for use with a TV clip recorded from *TV5Monde*):

EXAMPLE OF A PEDAGOGICAL ACTIVITY TO TRAIN LISTENING COMPREHENSION SKILLS IN BUSINESS FRENCH

5 minutes taken from a 20 minute documentary on ‘Neuro-marketing’⁴² recorded from TV5MONDE 4th May 2007.

“Si seulement je savais ce à quoi tu pensais ...”

1. *Prenez le temps de lire les questions ci-dessous. (5 minutes)*
2. *Visionnez le clip une première fois ; n’écrivez rien.*
3. *Visionnez le reportage une deuxième fois. Si vous le désirez, vous pouvez prendre des notes.*
4. *Répondez aux questions suivantes :*
 1. Quels mots entendez-vous au tout début du reportage?
.....
.....
 2. Pourquoi les entreprises veulent-elles changer le comportement des gens?
.....
.....
 3. Combien de dollars sont dépensés tous les ans en publicités aux Etats-Unis ?
.....
.....
 4. Quel pourcentage des publicités américaines ratent leur cible ?
.....
.....
 5. D’après ce qui est dit dans le reportage, quelle possibilité serait offerte par l’IRM ?
.....

⁴² Neologism designating the use of MRI scans as an advertising tool.

-
- .
6. Comment s'appelle la première société à utiliser l'IRM et où est-elle implantée ?
-
-
7. Quel métier exerce Clive Thompson et où travaille-t-il ?
-
-
8. D'après Thompson qu'est-ce que *Brighthouse* essaie de faire ? Comment s'appelle la première société à utiliser l'IRM et où est-elle implantée ?
-
-
9. Quel a été l'effet produit par l'article de Thompson ? Comment s'appelle la première société à utiliser l'IRM et où est-elle implantée ?
-
-
10. Comment le *buy-button* est-il traduit dans le reportage ?
-
-
11. Qu'est-ce le *buy-button* ?
-
-
12. Selon Thompson, le *buy-button* existe-t-il vraiment ?
-
-
13. Qui est-ce qui trouve qu'il y a beaucoup de variables qu'il faudrait ajouter au concept du *buy-button* et où cette personne travaille-t-elle ?
-
-
14. Qu'a demandé Ralph Nader de *Commercial Alert* au gouvernement américain ?
-
-

15. D'après Nader, quel devrait être le but de toute publicité ?

.....
.....
.....

16. Comment Nader qualifie-t-il le neuro-marketing ?

.....
.....

17. Sur quoi Marco Iacobona et Joshua Freedman ont-ils testé l'IRM ?

.....
.....

18. Qu'est-ce que l'amygdale contrôle dans le cerveau ?

.....
.....

19. Quelle prédiction est faite par beaucoup d'Américains pour les prochaines élections présidentielles ?

.....
.....

20. D'après vous, pourquoi les deux scientifiques rient-ils à la fin du reportage ?

.....
.....

Prenez le temps de vous relire attentivement avant la mise en commun. (7 minutes)

À l'oral: classes de conversation de la semaine du 21 mai

- *Présentez une publicité que vous trouvez convaincante. Dites pourquoi, selon vous, elle est réussie.*
- *D'après vous, les gouvernements devraient-ils interdire le neuro-marketing ? Pourquoi ?*

Pour aller plus loin:

Allez sur Internet (google.fr) et trouvez des informations sur des stratégies de marketing les plus en vigueur dans les pays francophones..

VME 05/07

Annexure 15
Contract
School of Languages & Literatures
French Section

Student No.:
First Names:
Surname:
Registered for the following French course(s):

I, the undersigned, hereby declare that I have read and understood the regulations governing the study of French within the French Section of the School of Languages & Literatures of the Faculty of Humanities of the University of Cape Town and agree to abide by these regulations. I understand that not to do so can nullify the granting of my Duly Performed Certificate.

1. I understand that, in order to be successful in learning a modern language, regular contact with that language is essential. Therefore, I undertake to attend regularly lectures, tutorials, conversation classes and laboratory sessions and, in the event of sickness, to supply a medical certificate.
2. I understand that the French Section of the School of Languages & Literatures of the Faculty of Humanities of the University of Cape Town has adopted a system of Continuous Assessment for assessing students' performance in French. Furthermore, I understand that this means, not only my regular attendance and participation, but also the completion of preparation as indicated by my lecturers and the timeous submission of assignments. I understand that, should I not comply with the due date for an assignment, it will not be corrected and I will be given 0 marks for that assignment.
3. I further understand that, should I fail to submit an assignment by the due date or should I not sit a test, (for any reason other than medical for which I will supply a medical certificate), my Duly Performed Certificate will not be granted and I will not be given academic credit for French on my academic record.
4. Should I undertake research for any of my assignments, I undertake not to plagiarise. I understand that plagiarising means using another's work and claiming that it is my own. I also understand that, when I declare that I have not plagiarised, this applies not only to books, reviews and journals but also to internet sites. In addition, I understand that plagiarism is a serious offence for which a student is summoned before the University Student Disciplinary Court and for which s/he can be excluded.
5. Since cellular telephones can be disruptive to fellow students and to lecturers, I undertake to ensure that my cellular telephone remains switched off during lectures, tutorials, conversation classes and laboratory sessions.

Signed
at the University of Cape Town, this day (day) (month) (year)

Annexure 16

Mundus Masters Programme

The Mundus Masters programme, created by the European Commission, is designed to bring non-European students to Europe for postgraduate study. Under this umbrella, a Masters degree entitled Crossways in European Humanities is offered by a consortium of universities comprising the University of St Andrews (Scotland), the University of Perpignan (France), the University of Bergamo (Italy), the New University of Lisbon (Portugal), the University of Tübingen (Germany) and the University of Santiago de Compostela (Spain).

Crossways in European Humanities is a two-year programme, offering an integrated range of courses around the theme of European identity. The programme allows students to choose a home university, and follow courses at three universities, in three different countries, during the course of their studies. Students who have completed four or more years of university study may apply for direct entry into the second year, and will attend their home university plus one other. Selected students are offered very generous bursaries, which are currently at the level of approximately 15000 euros per annum, plus fees. Furthermore, the EU has specifically decided to target southern Africa, including South Africa, in the current selection process, thus making a higher proportion of bursaries available to applicants from this region. Graduates with language skills are particularly well suited to the programme since students on the two-year pathway require a good knowledge of two European languages and a working knowledge of a third; students on the one-year pathway require a knowledge of two European languages only. English counts as one of these languages, so graduates in French, German, Italian, Portuguese and Spanish are well equipped to apply.

The Mundus Masters Crossways in European Humanities is now in its third year. It continues to attract top quality applications from all around the world and its graduates have moved on to a range of international careers or to doctoral research. The Crossways programme is unique in its scope, in the bursaries it offers and in the career possibilities which it opens up.

http://www.munduscrossways.eu/struttura/mundus_struttura.asp?cerca=crossways_intro

Annexure 17

**Table of nationalities for student enrolments per Faculty at the University of
Cape Town, 2003-2005⁴³**

**Nationalities of
all registered
students 2003**

Nationality	Faculty						Grand Total
	COM	ENG	LAW	MED	SCI	SSH	
RSA	5117	2220	637	2353	2027	4675	17029
Unknown	231	103	41	131	88	239	833
ZIM	258	158	73	31	104	192	816
USA	14	10	10	13	36	331	414
BOT	66	64	27	29	51	126	363
NAM	44	61	43	42	46	36	272
GER	30	21	85	10	25	40	211
LES	22	57	21	22	25	47	194
ZAM	34	30	8	11	35	33	151
MAU	35	41		23	22	19	140
GBR	29	8	3	13	30	49	132
KEN	18	24	8	10	12	29	101
MOC	17	17	2	1	14	34	85
SWL	10	20	19	10	10	13	82
UGA	6	22		17	11	13	69
NOR	5	5	8		10	37	65
TAN	9	19	5	6	13	11	63
MAL	12	8	2	8	6	17	53
CAN	2	10	6	4	4	12	38
ANG	3	13	1	1	8	8	34
IND	3	14		12	4	1	34
ERI	8	2		2	20	1	33
ZAI	3	6	3	1	10	10	33
FRA	3	1	5	2	8	12	31
NIG	1	6	3	9	4	4	27
CHI	9	1		3	5	5	23
GHA	4	2	4	6	1	6	23
CAM	3		2	4	5	6	20
BEL	3	1	6	1	2	6	19
CON	3	2	2	2	4	5	18
NED	2	1	5	1	3	6	18
TAI	7	4	1	2		4	18
DEN		4	1	2		7	14
RWA	1	3			3	4	11
AST	2	1	3	1		2	9
AUS	1	1	2	3	1	1	9
ISR		1	1	1	3	3	9
SIE	2	3		1	1	2	9
SUD		1		6	2		9
SWZ	1		3	1		4	9
ETH		2		3	3		8
ITA	2	1	1		2	2	8
SWE	2				3	3	8
BUR				1	3	3	7

⁴³ I am grateful to Mrs Robin Gherasim of the Faculty of Humanities of the University of Cape Town for having supplied this information. SSH signifies the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences.

KOR	2				1	4	7
HNK	3	1				2	6
JAP					1	5	6
EIR	1		1		1	2	5
LIB	1			3	1		5
SPA					3	2	5
TUR		3			1	1	5
CHL			1		3		4
INO					1	3	4
RUS	1				3		4
SLA	1	1		1	1		4
UAE	1			2	1		4
BRA				1		2	3
BUL	1			1	1		3
GAB	1	1			1		3
GRE		2				1	3
IVO		1		1		1	3
PAK	1	1			1		3
PER		2				1	3
POR	1				1	1	3
YUG				1		2	3
AFG						2	2
ARG						2	2
COL	2						2
CZE	1					1	2
EGY	1					1	2
ETM						2	2
JAM		1				1	2
LBY		2					2
LIT	2						2
MAD		1			1		2
MLS		1	1				2
NEP				2			2
PAL						2	2
RUM		1		1			2
BAH				1			1
BMA						1	1
COS						1	1
CUB				1			1
EQG	1						1
FIN						1	1
IRE						1	1
IRN					1		1
IRQ				1			1
JAV						1	1
JOR				1			1
MEX						1	1
NZE					1		1
OMA					1		1
POL		1					1
REU						1	1
SAR	1						1
SIN	1						1
Grand Total	6045	2987	1044	2816	2689	6103	21684

**Nationalities
of all
registered
students
2004**

	Faculty						
Nationality	COM	ENG	LAW	MED	SCI	SSH	Grand Total
RSA	4985	2186	658	2445	1903	4512	16689
Unknown	318	72	164	131	88	259	1032
ZIM	288	148	77	28	118	214	873
USA	30	13	10	25	45	391	514
BOT	77	75	13	42	49	142	398
GBR	88	32	11	32	55	111	329
NAM	47	82	4	43	45	36	257
GER	64	21	69	10	28	47	239
LES	21	65	5	19	32	40	182
MAU	41	44	1	30	35	24	175
ZAM	27	42	10	13	37	30	159
KEN	23	26	8	13	20	30	120
UGA	16	31	5	18	16	16	102
NOR	11	3	10		9	56	89
MOC	12	15	2	7	17	24	77
TAN	16	22	7	10	10	12	77
CHI	26	11	3	7	16	12	75
IND	13	29	3	17	10	3	75
TAI	31	19	2	2	10	11	75
MAL	19	9	3	9	4	20	64
CAN	4	7	10	3	12	24	60
SWL	14	17	5	7	3	11	57
GHA	12	7	5	11	9	6	50
ZAI	8	10	2	1	12	16	49
NIG	2	11	6	10	14	4	47
NED	9	4	5	4	3	15	40
FRA	8	3	2	3	9	6	31
ANG	2	15	1	1	4	7	30
AUS	7	3	4	1	4	7	26
SWZ	2	1	7	2	3	9	24
CAM	4	1	2	4	7	5	23
BEL	5	4	4	1	3	4	21
CON	6	3	2	4	2	4	21
POR	7	2		4	2	6	21
ERI	7	1		2	8		18
ITA	4		1		3	10	18
SWE	3	1	2		5	6	17
HNK	6	4	1	3	1	1	16
KOR	4			1	4	7	16
EIR	6	2	1		3	3	15
ISR	2	3	1	1	4	4	15
RUS	9	1		1	2	2	15
RWA		5		1	3	6	15
YUG	4	3			2	5	14
AST	2	2	3	1		4	12
ETH		3		2	5	2	12
POL	3	2		1	2	4	12
BRA	5			1	1	4	11
DEN	1	2	1	3	1	2	10
MLI	10						10
SUD		1		6	2		9

JAP					1	6	7
MLS	1	3	2			1	7
SPA					4	3	7
BUL	3	2			1		6
LIB	1			4	1		6
SLA	4		1		1		6
ARG	1			1	1	2	5
BAN		4		1			5
BUR	3				1	1	5
GRE	2	1			1	1	5
RUM		1		2	1	1	5
SIE		3		2			5
CHL		1			2	1	4
JAM		1				3	4
TUR		3			1		4
UAE	1			2		1	4
EQG		3					3
FIN	1			1		1	3
GAB		1			2		3
IRN		2			1		3
PAK	2					1	3
PAL	1					2	3
COL	2						2
IRE	1					1	2
IVO				1		1	2
JOR				1	1		2
LIT	2						2
MOR					2		2
SAR	1					1	2
AFG	1						1
ALG					1		1
BAH				1			1
BMA	1						1
EQU						1	1
INO						1	1
IRQ				1			1
JAV						1	1
LBY	1						1
LUX				1			1
MEX						1	1
MYA				1			1
NZE					1		1
OMA					1		1
PAR						1	1
PHL	1						1
SIN	1						1
SYR	1						1
URU	1						1
Grand Total	6342	3088	1133	2999	2704	6206	22472

**Nationalities
of all
registered
students
2005**

	Faculty						
Nationality	COM	ENG	LAW	MED	SCI	SSH	Grand Total
RSA	5229	2432	677	2528	1860	4191	16917
ZIM	284	148	83	27	137	253	932
Unknown	259	77	52	130	109	255	882
USA	26	10	15	23	46	486	606
BOT	94	94	15	48	53	131	435
GBR	72	33	8	27	54	119	313
NAM	51	92	7	43	45	38	276
GER	72	20	64	9	29	61	255
MAU	36	54	1	30	27	30	178
LES	12	75	8	14	37	31	177
ZAM	29	43	8	14	32	27	153
KEN	26	33	8	13	20	34	134
UGA	21	34	10	17	15	18	115
TAN	26	23	11	15	27	10	112
NOR	16	13	9	4	9	59	110
CHI	38	12	3	7	20	10	90
TAI	33	21	1	6	11	11	83
MAL	29	7	5	8	9	23	81
IND	20	28	3	18	9	2	80
MOC	15	18		6	22	17	78
NIG	9	22	8	16	11	9	75
CAN	4	5	14	5	17	27	72
GHA	26	8	3	14	5	9	65
SWL	10	22	4	4	7	11	58
ZAI	7	12	1	1	17	12	50
NED	10	6	7	5	5	14	47
ANG	2	12	3	2	8	6	33
FRA	8	6	2	2	9	6	33
SWZ	4	1	7	2	4	10	28
CAM	3		3	6	7	8	27
ETH	2	5		5	7	7	26
AUS	11	2	2	1	2	7	25
KOR	7	3		1	6	6	23
ITA	5	2	1		5	9	22
ERI	3	2		4	12		21
POR	5	1		5	3	7	21
BEL	4	3	2	2	3	6	20
RUS	10	1		1	2	5	19
HNK	5	6	1	3	2	1	18
MLI	17						17
RWA		5	1	1	4	6	17
SWE	3	2	1		3	8	17
BRA	9			1	1	4	15
CON	3	3	1		3	5	15
DEN		1	1	2	1	9	14
EIR	3	2	3	1	1	4	14
POL	3	3		1	1	6	14
AST	3	1	2	1	1	5	13
ISR	3	3	1	1	1	4	13
BUL	6	3	1		1		11
SUD		1		5	4		10

YUG	2	2			1	3	8
GRE	2			1	1	3	7
BUR	3		1		1	1	6
IRN		3		1		2	6
JAP					2	4	6
CHL					3	2	5
FIN	1	1				3	5
PAK	2	1	1			1	5
RUM		1		2	1	1	5
SIE		3		2			5
SLA	2	2	1				5
SPA	1				2	2	5
TUR	1				2	2	5
ARG	2					2	4
BAN		3		1			4
GAB		1			3		4
IRE	1	1			1	1	4
MLS	1	1	1			1	4
EQG		3					3
LIB	1			2			3
LIT	1				1	1	3
PAL	1					2	3
UAE	2			1			3
ALG					2		2
COL	1					1	2
CZE	1					1	2
INO					1	1	2
IVO				1		1	2
JAM						2	2
MAD					2		2
MYA				2			2
NEP	1					1	2
PHL					1	1	2
SAR	2						2
SEY					1	1	2
AFG	1						1
BAH				1			1
BMA	1						1
CRO						1	1
EGY	1						1
EST						1	1
HUN						1	1
ICE						1	1
IRQ				1			1
JAV						1	1
JOR				1			1
LAT		1					1
MEX						1	1
NZE					1		1
OMA					1		1
PER		1					1
SIN	1						1
UKR	1						1
URU	1						1
Grand Total	6607	3434	1061	3095	2751	6063	23011

Annexure 18
Staff – Student Numbers in the Section of French, University of Cape Town,
decade 1995 – 2005⁴⁴:

FRENCH													
	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
<u>Permanent staff.</u>	8	8	7	7	6	6	6	5	4	4	3	3	3
<u>Student Nos.</u>													
Intensive	81	86	94	88	*								
1st Year	53	37	42	44	85	104	130	109	118	98	143	119	121
2nd Year	29	35	56	37	25	32	34	60	54	62	55	56	54
3rd Year	17	19	14	23	17	21	17	22	28	29	39	42	38
Honours											9	1	1
MA											7	7	2
PhD											2	2	5
Total postgraduate	4	11	12	10	6	7	11	9	17	10	18	10	8

(*) French Intensive ceases at the end of 1998. Thereafter it becomes first year French; students who have symbol C or above at Senior School Matriculation (or equivalent) register for second level French and can major in the discipline after four semesters of university study.

⁴⁴ I am grateful to Ms Sonja De Kock for having compiled this table.

Annexure 19
**Questionnaire & accompanying e-mail sent to South African institutions of
higher learning which offer French**

Questionnaire

Kindly complete the following questionnaire. Where there is a Yes / No answer, please delete whichever *does not* apply to you.

1. University of
2. Name of entity: School / Department/ Section
.....
.....
3. Is there a language requirement at your university? Yes / No
4. If 'Yes', for which discipline(s)?
.....
.....
5. Student enrolments & through-put in French:

	2005		2006		2007	
	Total No. fail	No. pass /	Total No.	No. pass / fail	Total No.	No. pass / fail
French 1 Semester 1 Beginners		Pass: Fail:		Pass: Fail:		Pass: Fail:
French 1 Semester 2 Beginners		Pass: Fail:		Pass: Fail:		Pass: Fail:
French 1 Semester 1 Students with Matric French (if you run a separate 1st-year course for students with school French)		Pass: Fail:		Pass: Fail:		Pass: Fail:
French 1 Semester 2 Students with Matric French (continuation of above)		Pass: Fail:		Pass: Fail:		Pass: Fail:
French 2 Semester 1 Students continuing from beginners' course		Pass: Fail:		Pass: Fail:		Pass: Fail:
French 2 Semester 1 Students with Matric French (registering directly for 2nd-year French)		Pass: Fail:		Pass: Fail:		Pass: Fail:

French 2 Semester 2 Students continuing from beginners' course		Pass: Fail:		Pass: Fail:		Pass: Fail:
French 2 Semester 2 Students with Matric French (who registered directly for 2 nd -year French)		Pass: Fail:		Pass: Fail:		Pass: Fail:
French 3 Semester 1		Pass: Fail:		Pass: Fail:		Pass: Fail:
French 3 Semester 2		Pass: Fail:		Pass: Fail:		Pass: Fail:
Honours		Pass: Fail:		Pass: Fail:		Pass: Fail:

6. Which language textbooks are you using in 2007?

Beginners' course:

.....
.....
.....
.....

2nd year course:

.....
.....
.....
.....

3rd year course:

.....
.....
.....
.....

7. Which literary works are prescribed for study in 2007?

Beginners' course:

.....
.....
.....
.....

2nd year course:

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

3rd year course:

.....

8. Do you offer courses in French for Special Purposes? Yes / No
 If 'Yes', which courses do you offer and in which year(s)?

.....

9. Which assessment methods do you use?

a) Continuous assessment: Yes / No

b) Continuous assessment with oral examinations: Yes / No

Weighting:

Continuous assessment =%

Oral exams = %

c) Year Work, written & oral examinations: Yes / No

Weighting: Year work =%

Written examinations = %

Oral examinations = %

10. Staffing complement:

	2005	2006	2007
No. of permanent full-time academic staff			
No. of permanent part-time academic staff			
No. of full-time contract staff			
No. of part-time contract staff			
No. of <i>stagiaires</i>			

11. Do you have the use of a language laboratory / resource centre (Please delete as applicable) Yes / No

12. Are language laboratory / resource centre sessions compulsory for students?
Yes / No Supervised / Self-study

Many thanks!

Vanessa Everson
SLL (French)
UCT
vanessa.everson@uct.ac.za

21/09/2007

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE TOWN
SCHOOL OF LANGUAGES & LITERATURES
Private Bag, Rondebosch 7701
Rm 204, Beattie Building, 5 University Avenue, Rondebosch 7700
Fax: (021) 685-5530: Tel. (021) 650-2895
E-mail for secretary: sonja.dekock@uct.ac.za
Director: Prof. J. Hambidge

Dear Colleagues,

Apologies for making this request for information at such a busy time of the year when thoughts already turn to festive celebrations, but, for purposes of my research on undergraduate-level French at South African universities, I would ask you to kindly complete the attached questionnaire and to return it to me electronically (vanessa.everson@uct.ac.za) or by fax to 021 68 555 30. In addition, could you kindly fax me all photocopies of course codes with course descriptions as featured in your undergraduate handbook for all French courses on offer at your university. Should you distribute any additional information to your students on course objectives, that would also be extremely helpful to me.

Thanking you in advance,

Vanessa Everson

School of Languages & Literatures (French)
Faculty of Humanities
University of Cape Town

Annexure 20

Textbooks and Teaching Aids

Examples of Fiction by Contemporary Moroccan Women Authors (recommended for use with a cross-cultural approach)

Short Stories:

- Aslaoui, L. 1994. *Survivre comme l'espoir*. Media-Plus: Algérie.
- Gaasch, J. 1996. *Anthologie de la nouvelle maghrébine*. Éditions Eddif: Casablanca.
- Mabrouk, A. 1992. *Le futur déjà là & Hurlement*. Édition de l'Entreligne: Paris.
- Moulay, L. 1996. *Un jour, l'Alcyon ...* Éditions Eddif: Casablanca.

Novels:

- Bahéchar, S. 2000. *Ni fleurs ni couronnes*. Éditions Le Fennec: Casablanca.
- Belhadj Yahia, E. 1996. *L'Étage invisible*. Cérès Éditions: Tunis.
- Hadraoui, T. 1998. *Une enfance marocaine*. Le Fennec: Casablanca.
- Lahlou, J. 1989. *Jugurtha ou le refus*. Les Éditions Guessous: Casablanca.
- Lhassani, A. 1995. *La citadelle détruite*. Tome I (Suivi de Tome II – *Le retour du printemps*). Média Stratégie: Rabat.
- Saqi, R. 1998. *Marocaines en mâle-vie*. Éditions Eddif: Casablanca.
- Sebti, F. 1995. *Moi Mireille, lorsque j'étais Yasmina*. Casablanca: Le Fennec, 1995
- Yacoubi, R. 1995. *Ma Vie, mon Cri*. Éditions Eddif: Casablanca.

Plays:

- Lhassani, A. 1994. *Nour ou l'Appel de Dieu*. Éditions La Porte: Rabat.

Textbooks (past and present) & Teacher Guides for Language Teaching

- Abry, D. & Chalaron, M.-L. 2003. *La Grammaire des premiers temps Volume 1* Collection FLE. PUG: Grenoble.
- Abry, D. & Chalaron, M.-L. 2003. *La Grammaire des premiers temps Volume 2* Collection FLE. PUG: Grenoble.
- Benoit-Abdelkader, O. & Thiébaud, A. 2005. *Savoir-lire au quotidien: apprentissage de la lecture et de l'écriture en français*. Hachette, Croix-Rouge française: Paris.
- Bérard, E., Canier, Y. & Lavenne, C. 1996. *Tempo 1 méthode de français*. Didier/Hatier: Paris.
- Bérard, E., Canier, Y. & Lavenne, C. 1997. *Tempo 2: méthode de français*. Didier/Hatier: Paris
- Berger, D. & Spicacci, N. *Accord: méthode de français, niveau 1*. 2000. Didier: Paris.
- Berthet, A., Hugot, C. & Sampsonis, B. 2006. *Alter Ego méthode de français A2: cahier d'activités*. Hachette: Paris.
- Berthet, A., Hugot, C., Sampsonis, B. & Waendendries, M. 2006. *Alter Ego méthode de français A1: cahier d'activités*. Hachette: Paris.
- Berthet, A., Hugot, C., Sampsonis, B. & Waendendries, M. 2007. *Alter Ego French method workbook*. Hachette: Paris.

- Berthet, A., Hugot, C., Kizirian, V., Sampsonis, B. & Waendendries, M. 2006. *Alter Ego méthode de français A1*. Hachette: Paris.
- Berthet, A., Hugot, C., Kizirian, V., Sampsonis, B. & Waendendries, M. 2006. *Alter Ego méthode de français A2*. Hachette: Paris.
- Blanc, J. 1994. *Scénarios professionnels 1*. CLE International: Paris.
- Blanc, J. 1994. *Scénarios professionnels 1: livret d'exercices*. CLE International: Paris.
- Blanc, J. 1995. *scénarios professionnels 2*. CLE International: Paris.
- Blanc, J. 1995. *Scénarios professionnels 2: livret d'exercices*. CLE International: Paris.
- Blanc, J., Cartier, J.M. & Lederlin, F. 1993. *Bien reçu: compréhension orale, initiation*. CLE International: Paris.
- Bloomfield, A. & Mubanga Beya, A. 2006. *Le nouvel entraînez-vous DELF B1 200 activités*. CLE International: Paris.
- Boularès, M. & Frérot, J.-L. 1997. *Grammaire progressive du français Niveau avancé*. CLE International: Paris.
- Boularès, M. & Frérot, J.-L. 1997. *Grammaire progressive du français Niveau avancé: corrigés*. CLE International: Paris.
- Boularès, M. 2000. *Conjugaison progressive du français avec 400 exercices*. CLE International: Paris.
- Bourdeau, P. & Boesch, M. 1992. *Lire écrire parler: français langue seconde*. MAFPEN: Fort-de-France.
- Breton, G., Cerdan, M., Dayez, Y., Dupleix, D., Riba, P. 2005. *Réussir le DELF Niveau A1 du cadre européen commun de référence*. Didier FLE: Paris.
- Capelle, G. & Gidon, N. 1995. *Le Nouvel Espaces 2: méthode de français + 1 livret + 1 guide pédagogique*. Hachette: Paris.
- Capelle, G. & Menand, R. 2003. *taxi! 1 méthode de français cahier d'exercices*. Hachette FLE: Paris.
- Capelle, G. & Menand, R. 2003. *taxi! 1 méthode de français guide pédagogique*. Hachette FLE: Paris.
- Capelle, G. & Menand, R. 2003. *taxi! 1 méthode de français*. Hachette FLE: Paris.
- Capelle, G. 1992. *Espaces 1: guide pédagogique*. Hachette: Paris.
- Capelle, G. 1992. *Espaces 1: tests d'évaluation corrigés*. Hachette: Paris.
- Capelle, G. 1992. *Espaces 1: tests d'évaluation*. Hachette: Paris.
- Capelle, G. 1995. *Nouvel Espaces 1*. Hachette: Paris.
- Capelle, G. 1995. *Nouvel Espaces 1: cahier d'exercices*. Hachette: Paris.
- Capelle, G. 1995. *Nouvel Espaces 1: guide pédagogique*. Hachette: Paris.
- Capelle, G. 1995. *Nouvel Espaces 2*. Hachette: Paris.
- Capelle, G. 1995. *Nouvel Espaces 2: cahier d'exercices*. Hachette: Paris.
- Capelle, G. 1995. *Nouvel Espaces 2: guide pédagogique*. Hachette: Paris.
- Capelle, G. 1996. *Nouvel Espaces 2: cahier d'exercices*. Hachette: Paris.
- Capelle, G. 1996. *Nouvel Espaces 2: guide pédagogique*. Hachette: Paris.
- Capelle, G. 1996. *Nouvel Espaces 3*. Hachette: Paris.
- Capelle, G. 1999. *Reflets niveau 1: guide pédagogique*. Hachette FLE: Paris.
- Capelle, G., Cavalli, M. & Gidon, N. 1996. *Fréquence jeunes 3: méthode de français + 1 livret*. Hachette: Paris.

- Cerdan, M., Chevallier, D., Dupleix, D., Lepage, S. & Riba, P. 2005. *Réussir le DELF Niveau A2 du cadre européen commun de référence*. Didier FLE: Paris.
- Chalaron, M.-L. & Roesch, R. 1990. *La Grammaire autrement sensibilisation et pratique*. PUG: Grenoble.
- Chevallier-Wixler, D., Dayez, Y., Lepage, S. & Riba, P. 2006. *Réussir le DELF Niveau B1 du cadre européen commun de référence*. Didier FLE: Paris.
- Chevallier-Wixler, D., Dupleix, D., Jouette, I. & Mègre, B. 2007. *Réussir le DELF Niveaux C1 et C2 du cadre européen commun de référence*. Didier FLE: Paris.
- Compte, C. 1993. *La Vidéo en classe de langue*. Hachette-Classiques: Paris.
- Constanzo, E. 2005. *Campus 3: cahier d'exercices*. CLE International: Paris.
- Constanzo, E. 2005. *Campus 3: livre du professeur*. CLE International: Paris.
- Cotentin-Rey, G. 1992. *Le Résumé*. CLE International: Paris.
- Courtillon, J. & Guyot-Clément, C. 2006. *Campus 4*. CLE International: Paris.
- Courtillon, J. & Salins, G.-D. de. 1997. *Libre Echange 3: méthode de français + 1 livre du professeur*. Hatier/Didier: Paris.
- Courtillon, J. 1995. *Libre Echange 1*. Didier/Hatier: Paris.
- Courtillon, J. 1995. *Libre Echange 2*. Didier/Hatier: Paris.
- Courtillon, J. 1995. *Libre Echange 3*. Didier/Hatier: Paris.
- Courtillon, J. 2006. *Campus 4: cahier d'exercices*. CLE International: Paris.
- Courtillon, J. 2006. *Campus 4: livre du professeur*. CLE International: Paris.
- Cridlig, J.-M. 1993. *Vocabulaire entraînez-vous: niveau débutant intermédiaire*. CLE International: Paris.
- Daill, E. & Trévisiol, P. 2007. *Alter Ego méthode de français B1 cahier d'activités*. Hachette: Paris.
- Daill, E., Blin, G., Kizirian, V., Sampsonis, B. & Waendendries, M. 2006. *Alter Ego méthode de français 1: guide pédagogique*. Hachette: Paris.
- Danilo, M. & Tauzin, B. 1998. *Le Français de l'entreprise*. CLE International: Paris.
- Demougin, F. & Dumont P. 1999. *Cinéma et chanson : pour enseigner le français autrement : une didactique du français langue seconde*. CRDP: Toulouse.
- Descotes-Genon, C., Morsel, M.-H. & Richou, C. 2005. *L'Exercisier manuel d'expression française*. PUG: Grenoble.
- Dollez, C. & Né, M.-F. 2004. *Forum images 2 méthode de français. Cahier d'activités vidéo*. Hachette FLE: Paris.
- Dollez, C. & Né, M.-F. 2004. *Forum Niveau 1: cahier d'activités*. Hachette FLE: Paris.
- Dollez, C. & Né, M.-F. 2004. *Méthode de français Forum 2*. Hachette FLE: Paris.
- Dollez, C. & Né, M.-F. 2004. *Méthode de français Forum 2: cahier d'exercices*. Hachette FLE: Paris.
- Dollez, C. & Pons, S. 2001. *Méthode de français Reflets 3*. Hachette FLE: Paris.
- Dollez, C. & Pons, S. 2002. *Méthode de français Reflets 3. Cahier d'exercices*. Hachette FLE: Paris.

- Dollez, C. & Pons, S. 2002. *Méthode de français Reflets 3. Guide pédagogique*. Hachette FLE: Paris.
- Dollez, C. & Pons, S. 2006. *Alter Ego méthode de français B1*. Hachette: Paris.
- Dollez, C. & Pons, S. 2007. *Alter Ego méthode de français B2*. Hachette: Paris.
- Douenel, L., Jackson, G. & Raoul, S. 1994. *Si tu t'imagines...Atelier de littérature, lecture, écriture*. Hatier/Didier: Paris.
- Duplantie, M., Beaudoin, C. & Hullen, J. 1990. *Elans*. Centre éducatif et culturel: Montréal.
- Dupoux, B., Havard, A.-M., Martial, M. & Weeger, M. 2006. *Réussir le DELF Niveau B2 du cadre européen commun de référence*. Didier FLE: Paris.
- Eurin Balmet, S. & Henao de Legge, M. 1992. *Pratiques du français scientifique: l'enseignement du français à des fins de communication scientifique*. Hachette FLE: Vanves.
- Eurin Balmet, S. & Henao de Legge, M. 1992. *Pratiques du français scientifique : l'enseignement du français à des fins de communication scientifique*. Hachette: Paris.
- Gabry, J., Moreau, A. & Teninges, C. 2005. *Ecoles, langues et modes de pensée*. CRDP: Créteil.
- Garabédian M., Lerasle, M. & Meyer-Dreux, S. 1993. *Trampoline: méthode de français 1, guide pédagogique*. Trampoline: Paris.
- Garabédian M., Lerasle, M. & Meyer-Dreux, S. 1998. *Trampoline: méthode de français, guide de classe*. Trampoline: Paris.
- Garabédian M., Lerasle, M. & Meyer-Dreux, S. 1999. *Trampoline: méthode de français, cahier d'activités 2*. Trampoline: Paris.
- Garabédian M., Lerasle, M. & Meyer-Dreux, S. 2000. *Trampoline: méthode de français 1*. Trampoline: Paris.
- Garabédian M., Lerasle, M. & Meyer-Dreux, S. 2000. *Trampoline: méthode de français 2*. Trampoline: Paris.
- Garabédian M., Lerasle, M. & Meyer-Dreux, S. 2000. *Trampoline: méthode de français, cahier d'activités 1*. Trampoline: Paris.
- Gauvenet, H. et al. 1960. *Voix et images de France, livre du maître, préface à la première édition*. CRÉDIF: Paris.
- Gidon, N. & Capelle, G. 1999. *Reflets méthode de français niveau 1*. Hachette FLE: Paris.
- Gidon, N. & Capelle, G. 1999. *Reflets méthode de français niveau 1: cahier d'exercices*. Hachette FLE: Paris.
- Gidon, N. & Capelle, G. 1999. *Reflets méthode de français niveau 2*. Hachette FLE: Paris.
- Gidon, N. & Capelle, G. 1999. *Reflets méthode de français niveau 2: Guide pédagogique*. Hachette FLE: Paris.
- Gidon, N. & Capelle, G. 1999. *Reflets méthode de français niveau 2: cahier d'exercices*. Hachette FLE: Paris.
- Girardet, J. 1993. *Le nouveau sans frontières. 4*. CLE International: Paris.

- Girardet, J. 1994. *Le nouveau sans frontières perfectionnement : société, nouvelles technologies, économie*. CLE International: Paris.
- Girardet, J. 1995. *Le nouveau sans frontières. 1*. CLE International: Paris.
- Girardet, J. 1995. *Le nouveau sans frontières. 3*. CLE International: Paris.
- Girardet, J. 1996. *Le nouveau sans frontières. 2*. CLE International: Paris.
- Girardet, J. 2004. *Campus 1: fichier d'évaluation*. CLE International: Paris.
- Girardet, J. 2006. *Campus 2: cahier d'exercices*. CLE International: Paris.
- Girardet, J. & Cridlig, J.-M. 1996. *Panorama de la langue française: méthode de français niveau 1: livre de l'élève + cahier d'exercices + fichier d'évaluation*. CLE International: Paris.
- Girardet, J. & Cridlig, J.-M. 1996. *Panorama de la langue française: méthode de français niveau 2: livre de l'élève + cahier d'exercices + fichier d'évaluation*. CLE International: Paris.
- Girardet, J. & Cridlig, J.-M. 1996. *Panorama de la langue française: méthode de français niveau 3: livre de l'élève + cahier d'exercices + fichier d'évaluation*. CLE International: Paris.
- Girardet, J. & Cridlig, J.-M. 1999. *Panorama de la langue française: méthode de français niveau 4: livre de l'élève + cahier d'exercices + livre du professeur*. CLE International: Paris.
- Girardet, J. & Pécheur, J. 2005. *Campus 1 Méthode de français*. CLE International: Paris.
- Girardet, J. & Pécheur, J. 2005. *Campus 1: cahier d'exercices*. CLE International: Paris.
- Girardet, J. & Pécheur, J. 2006. *Campus 2: Méthode de français + livret de civilisation*. CLE International: Paris.
- Goi, C. 2005. *Des élèves venus d'ailleurs*. CRDP de l'Académie d'Orléans: Tours.
- Gomes, R. 1996. *Rendez-vous à l'annexe: méthode de français par la vidéo: niveau 1*. CLE International: Paris.
- Gomes, R., Gruneberg, A. & Job, B. 1995. *Rendez-vous à l'annexe niveau 2: méthode de français par la vidéo*. CLE International: Paris.
- Gomes, R., Gruneberg, A. & Job, B. 1996. *Rendez-vous à l'annexe niveau 3: méthode de français par la vidéo*. CLE International: Paris.
- Gougard, M.-T. & Bourdais, D. 1994. *BBC The French Experience 1* (New Edition). BBC Books.
- Grégoire, M. & Merlo, G. 1996. *Grammaire progressive du français: exercices et activités complémentaires, niveau A*. CLE International: Paris.
- Grégoire, M. & Merlo, G. 1996. *Grammaire progressive du français: exercices et activités complémentaires, niveau B*. CLE International: Paris.
- Grégoire, M. & Thiévenaz, O. 1995. *Grammaire progressive du français avec 500 exercices*. CLE International: Paris.
- Grégoire, M. & Thiévenaz, O. 1995. *Grammaire progressive du français avec 500 exercices: corrigés*. CLE International: Paris.
- Grégoire, M. & Thiévenaz, O. 2003. *Grammaire progressive du français niveau intermédiaire*. CLE International: Paris.

- Guédon, P. 2002. *Vivez les affaires*. Paris: Hachette.
- Guédon, P. 2003. *Forum 3: guide pédagogique*. Hachette FLE: Paris.
- Guédon, P. 2003. *taxi! 2 méthode de français guide pédagogique*. Hachette FLE: Paris.
- Guilloux, M. & Turbide, E. 2007. *Alter Ego méthode de français 3: guide pédagogique*. Hachette: Paris.
- Hachette FLE. 2002. *Forum Niveau 1: carnet de route*. Hachette FLE: Paris.
- Haefel, H. & Weiss, M. 1996. *L'Enseignement du français aux enfants d'origine étrangère*. CRDP, CEFISEM: Strasbourg.
- Hutchings, L. 2003. *taxi! 2 méthode de français: cahier d'exercices*. Hachette FLE: Paris.
- Job, B. 1994. *Mosaïque: méthode de français 1*. CLE International: Paris.
- Job, B. 1994. *Mosaïque: méthode de français 2*. CLE International: Paris.
- Job, B. 1995. *Mosaïque : méthode de français 3*. CLE International: Paris.
- Johnson, A.-M. & Menand, R. 2004. *taxi! 3 méthode de français*. Hachette FLE: Paris.
- Johnson, A.-M. & Menand, R. 2004. *taxi! 3 méthode de français: cahier d'exercices*. Hachette FLE: Paris.
- Kaneman-Pougatch, M., Beacco di Giura, M., Trevisi, S. & Jennepin, D. 1997. *Café crème 1: méthode de français + 1 cahier d'exercices, 1 guide pédagogique*. Hachette FLE: Paris.
- Latifi, M. 1993. *L'Hôtellerie en français*. Didier: Paris.
- Lavenne, C. 2004. *Studio 100: Méthode de français niveau 1 (livre de l'élève)*. Didier: Paris.
- Lavenne, C. 2004. *Studio 100: Méthode de français niveau 1: cahier d'exercices*. Didier: Paris.
- Lavenne, C. 2004. *Studio 100: Méthode de français niveau 1: guide pédagogique*. Didier: Paris.
- Lavenne, C. 2004. *Studio 100: Méthode de français niveau 2 (livre de l'élève)*. Didier: Paris.
- Lavenne, C. 2004. *Studio 100: Méthode de français niveau 2: cahier d'exercices*. Didier: Paris.
- Le Bougnec, J.-T., Menand, R., Vidal, M. & Lopes, M.-J. 2002. *Méthode de français Forum No. 3*. Hachette FLE: Paris.
- Le Bougnec, J.-T., Lopes, M.-J., Menand, R. & Vidal, M. 2002. *Forum 3. Livre de l'élève*. Hachette FLE: Paris.
- Le Corre, A.-L. 2004. *taxi! 3 méthode de français: guide pédagogique*. Hachette FLE: Paris.
- Le Goff, C. 2000. *Le Nouveau French for business: le français des affaires*. Didier: Paris.
- Le Ninan, C. 1993. *Le français des affaires par la vidéo: livre de l'étudiant*. Ministère des affaires étrangères, sous-direction de la coopération linguistique et éducative; Centre de Linguistique Appliquée, Université de Franche-Comté. Didier/Hatier: Paris.
- Lescure, R., Chenard, S., Mubanga Beya, A., Bourbon, V., Rausch, A. & Vey, P. 2007. *Le nouvel entraînez-vous C1/C2: 250 activités*. CLE International: Paris.
- Marcus, C. 1999. *Français langue seconde: lectures pour les collèges*. CRDP: Grenoble.
- Menand, R. & Berthet, A. 2003. *Forum N° 3: cahier d'exercices*. Hachette FLE: Paris.
- Menand, R. 2003. *taxi! 2 méthode de français*. Hachette FLE: Paris.
- Mérieux, R. & Bergeron, C. 1999. *Bravo! 1 Méthode de français : cahiers d'exercices + corrigés*. Didier: Paris.
- Mérieux, R. & Bergeron, C. 1999. *Bravo! 1 Méthode de français*. Didier: Paris.

- Mérieux, R. & Bergeron, C. 1999. *Bravo! 2 Méthode de français*. Didier: Paris.
- Mérieux, R. & Bergeron, C. 1999. *Bravo! 2 Méthode de français: cahiers d'exercices + corrigés*. Didier: Paris.
- Miquel, C. 1999. *Vocabulaire progressif du français niveau avancé*. CLE International: Paris
- Moget, M.-T. 1972. *De vive voix, livre du maître*. CRÉDIF: Paris.
- Nemni, M., Merrick, S. & Preston, P. 1989. *Bienvenue I: Clic! Guide pédagogique – Livret A: Principes et Méthodologie*. Prentice-Hall Inc.: Canada.
- Nemni, M., Merrick, S., Preston, P. & Lecerf, B. 1988, 1989. *Bienvenue I, II, III*. Prentice-Hall Inc.: Canada.
- Palmer, H. 1904. *Méthode Palmer. La langue anglaise à l'usage des Français. Conversation sans puérilité. Grammaire sans ennui*. Castaigne: Brussels.
- Palmer, H. 1906. *Correspondance commerciale anglaise. De quoi la faire très rapidement et sans étude. Recueil des phrases, expressions, locutions, formules et mots les plus usités dans la correspondance anglaise. La disposition de son contenu permet, même à celui qui ne connaît pas l'anglais, d'écrire correctement une lettre dans cette langue et de se faire comprendre parfaitement*. Lacroix: Verviers.
- Palmer, H. 1907. *The Palmer Method. Elementary French especially arranged for the use of adult pupils and students*. Issued in instalments. The Hythe Reporter: Hythe, Kent.
- Papo, E. & Cintrat, I. 1994. *Cours de français + cahier d'exercices + 1 livre du professeur*. Didier/Hatier: Paris.
- Pécheur, J., Constanzo, E. & Molinié, M. 2005. *Campus 3: méthode de français*. CLE International: Paris.
- Penfornis, J.-L. 2002. *français.com: cahier d'exercices*. CLE International: Paris.
- Penfornis, J.-L. 2002. *français.com*. CLE International: Paris.
- Penfornis, J.-L. 2003. *français.com: guide pédagogique*. CLE International: Paris.
- Penfornis, J.-L. 2003. *français.com, niveau avancé*. CLE International: Paris.
- Penfornis, J.-L. 2003. *français.com, niveau avancé: guide pédagogique*. CLE International: Paris.
- Philipp, M.-G. & Prévost, P. 1992. *Répertoire d'outils pédagogiques utilisables dans les classes accueillant des élèves non francophones*. CNDP: Paris.
- Pucciani, O. & Hamel, J. 1964. *Langue et langage le français par le français*. Holt, Rinehart & Winston: Fort Worth, Texas.
- Robert Paris, P.-E. (ed.) 1992. *Page à page*. Didier: Paris.
- Robert Paris, P.-E. (ed.) 1993. *Toutes latitudes*. Didier: Paris.
- Sala, M. 2004. *Initial 1: méthode de français*. CLE International: Paris.
- Sampsonis, B. 2006. *Alter Ego 2 évaluation entraînement au DELF A2*. Hachette: Paris.
- Sirejols, E. & Claude, P. 2002. *Le nouvel entraînez-vous. 450 nouveaux exercices niveau avancé + corrigés*. CLE International: Paris.

- Sirejols, E. & Renaud, D. 1996. *Le nouvel entraînez-vous. 450 nouveaux exercices niveau intermédiaire*. CLE International: Paris.
- Sirejols, E. & Renaud, D. 1996. *Grammaire: le nouvel entraînez-vous avec 450 nouveaux exercices : niveau intermédiaire + corrigés*. CLE International: Paris.
- Sirejols, E. & Tempesta, G. 1996. *Grammaire: le nouvel entraînez-vous avec 450 nouveaux exercices: niveau débutant + corrigés*. CLE International: Paris.
- Sirejols, E. 1994. *Bien entendu!* Didier/Hatier: Paris.
- Spiess, F. 2004a. *Embarquement immédiat: se lancer dans l'écriture*. CNDP Gallimard: Paris.
- Spiess, F. 2004b. *La chambre de Vincent: écrire avec les peintres*. CNDP Gallimard: Paris.
- Spiess, F. 2004c. *Mon nom est Anna: écrire avec le théâtre*. CNDP-Gallimard: Paris.
- Tauzin, B. & Dubois, A.-L. 2006. *Objectif Express Le monde professionnel en français A1/A2*. Hachette: Paris.
- Thierry, A.-M. 1997. *Analyse de méthodes français langue étrangère: 1, français à objectifs spécifiques; 2, enseignement aux jeunes enfants; 3, pour jeunes adolescents*. CNDP: Paris.
- Tost, M., Murillo, J., Mestreit, C. & Campa, A. 2001. *Méthode de français Forum 2: guide pédagogique*. Hachette FLE: Paris.
- Valette, J.-P. & Valette, R. 2001. *Contacts*. 7th ed. Houghton Mifflin: Boston New York.
- Vigner, G. 1992. *Perspectives, cours de perfectionnement: guide pédagogique*. Hachette-Classiques: Paris.
- Yaiche, Francis. 1996. *Les simulations globales mode d'emploi*. Hachette: Paris.

Some Websites to train linguistic competence

<http://www.educaserve.com/premiere.php3>

Short grammar lessons with exercises and corrections; (click on "accès direct et gratuit aux 204 leçons").

<http://www.bonjourdefrance.com/index/indexapp.htm>

Texts for all levels on a broad range of themes with lexical and grammatical explanations, audio recordings, MCQs.

<http://francite.net/education/cyberprof/index.html>

Self-assessment of linguistic (spelling, grammar, punctuation, syntax, vocabulary) and cultural knowledge.

<http://www.bbc.co.uk/languages/french/index.shtml>

Video and audio excerpts on a broad range of topical issues. All levels. Explanations in English.

http://www.rfi.fr/fichiers/langue_francaise/index.asp

News in easy French (oral and reading comprehension exercises), listening activities, thematically-organised topics (on language and literature), a multi-media trip around the regions of France, chronicle of Francophone words and expressions.

<http://jeudelioie.free.fr/plateau.htm>

Grammar revision via Snakes and Ladders.

<http://www.polarfle.com/>

The learner is assistant to Inspector Roger Duflair in a murder case. To do this, he must find clues by doing grammar and vocabulary exercises. All levels (except complete beginners).

<http://www.cortland.edu/www/flteach/civ/>

Pedagogical activities on French civilisation: knowledge-based questions, images of everyday life in France, audio recordings and filmed interviews.

<http://www.peinturefle.ovh.org/>

French through painting. Grammar exercises and games linked to painting, colours, and shapes.

<http://www.pomme.ualberta.ca/devoir/>

Verb conjugations; tenses and modes. All levels.

http://clicnet.swarthmore.edu/exercices_oraux/

Oral exercises on certain grammatical structures. Intermediate level.

http://www.didieraccord.com/http:exercices_oraux/

Grammar revision incorporated into everyday situations. Two levels.

http://globegate.utm.edu/french/globegate_mirror/gramm.html

Grammatical explanations and exercises ideal for learning new grammatical structures or for revision. Some explanations in English.

Some Websites for Music & Song

<http://www.abcmelody.com/french/french.1.html>

<http://www.afromix.org/>

<http://www.ambfrance.com/actualites/>

<http://cartables.net>

<http://www.chanter.com/>

<http://www.chorus-chanson.fr/>

<http://www.cite-musique.fr/>

<http://www.comfm.com/>

<http://www.culture.fr/>

<http://www.delamusic.com/>

<http://www.diplomatie.fr/>

<http://www.disquenfrance.com/>

<http://www.francemp3.com/>

<http://www.francodiff.org/>

<http://www.francofolies.fr/>

References: Works Cited

- Abdallah-Pretceille, M. & Porcher, L. 1996. *Éducation et communication interculturelle*. PUF: Paris.
- Abdallah-Pretceille, M. 1986. "Approche interculturelle de l'enseignement des civilisations" In Porcher, L. *La Civilisation*. CLE International: Paris.
- Abdallah-Pretceille. 1992. *Quelle école pour quelle intégration?* CNDP/Hachette éducation: Paris.
- Abry, D. & Chalaron, M.-L. 2000. *La Grammaire des premiers temps volume 1* Collection FLE. PUG: Grenoble.
- Abry, D. & Chalaron, M.-L. 2003. *La Grammaire des premiers temps volume 2* Collection FLE. PUG: Grenoble.
- Ackerman, E. 1996. "Perspective Taking and Object Construction: Two Keys to Learning". In Kafai, Y. & Resnick, M. (eds.) *Constructionism in Practice: Designing, Thinking, and Learning in a Digital World*. pp 25-35. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates: Hillsdale New Jersey.
- Adams, J.N. 2003. *Bilingualism and the Latin Language*. Cambridge University Press: Cambridge.
- Adams, M., Bell, L.A. & Griffin, P. (ed.) 1997. *Teaching for Diversity & Social Justice: A Sourcebook*. Routledge: New York & London.
- Alcaraz Varó, E. 1990. *tres Paradigmas de la Investigadora Lingüística*. Marfil: Alcoy.
- Allen, V.F. 1983. *Inside English: How you can use insights from linguistics and the new grammars in the language classroom*. Regents: New York.
- Alter, J. 1971. "Pourquoi enseigner la littérature?" In Doubrovsky & Todorov (eds.) *L'Enseignement de la littérature*. Librairie Plon: Paris.
- Amossy, R. 1991. *Les Idées reçues. Sémiologie du stéréotype*. Nathan: Paris.
- Angelo, T.A. & Cross, K.P. 1993. *Classroom Assessment Techniques: a handbook for college teachers*. Jossey-Bass: San Francisco, CA.
- Asher, J.J. 1965. "The strategy of total physical response: an application to learning Russian". *IRAL*, 3, 210-299.
- Asher, J.J. 1969. "The total physical response approach to second language learning". *Modern Language Journal*, 53, 1, 3-17.
- Asher, J.J. 1977. *Learning Another Language through Actions: The Complete Teacher's Guidebook*. Sky Oaks Productions: Los Gatos, CA.
- Audet, L.-P. 1971. *Histoire de l'enseignement au Québec, 1608 – 1971*, tomes I et II, Holt, Rinehard & Winston: Montréal.
- Austin, J.L. 1962. *How to do Things with Words*. Urmson, J. & Sbisà, M. (eds). Oxford University Press: Oxford. 1975 edition.
- Baird, L.L. 1985. "Do grades and tests predict adult accomplishment?" *Research in Higher Education*, vol. 23, no. 1, 3-85.

- Banks, J. 1997. *Educating Citizens in a Multicultural Society*. Teachers College Press: New York.
- Barson, J. & Debski, R. 1996. "Calling back CALL: technology in the service of foreign language learning based on creativity, contingency, and goal-oriented activity". In Warschauer, M. (ed.) *Telecollaboration in foreign language learning*. University of Hawaii, Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center: Honolulu.
- Bauersfeld, H. 1995. "Language games in the mathematics classroom: Their function and their effects". In Cobb, P. & Bauersfeld, H. (eds.) *The Emergence of mathematical Meaning: Interaction in Classroom Cultures*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates: Hillsdale, NJ
- Beaudoin, C. 1989. *Clé de l'orthographe des verbes français*. Belin: Paris.
- Bekker, J. 2008. "An exploratory study of students' perceptions of the use of song for foreign language learning". Submitted 06 June 2008 to the Department of Education for the course Research Methods EDN5098Z in partial fulfilment of the degree of BA Honours in French (Teaching French as a Foreign Language), University of Cape Town.
- Berliner, D.C. 1984. "The half-full glass: a review of research on teaching". In Hosford, P.L. (ed). *Using What We Know About Teaching*. Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development: Alexandria, Va.
- Besse, H. 1982. "Éléments pour une didactique des documents littéraires". In Peytard, J. *Littérature et classe de langue* (pp 13-34). Hatier, Collection LAL: Paris.
- Besse, H. 1985. "Didactique et interculturalité". *Dialogues et cultures*, n° 26, (Québec 1984), 99-106
- Bialystok, E. 1978. "A theoretical model of second language learning". *Language Learning*, 28/1, 69-83.
- Bibeau, G. 1976. *Rapport de l'étude indépendante sur les programmes de formation linguistique de la Fonction publique du Canada*, vol. 7: La suggestopédie. Bureau des langues, Commission de la Fonction publique: Ottawa.
- Bibeau, G. 1983. "La théorie du moniteur de Krashen: aspects critiques". *Bulletin de l'ACLA*, 5/1, Printemps, 99-123.
- Black, P. & Wiliam, D. 1998. "Assessment and classroom learning". *Assessment in Education*, vol. 5, no. 1, 7-74.
- Bonneterre, D. 1991. *L'exercice du pouvoir royal en Babylonie ancienne d'après les Archives Royales de Mari*. PhD, Département d'Histoire, Université de Montréal.
- Books, N. 1960. *Language and Language Learning*. Harcourt Brace & Co.: New York
- Boucher, A.-M., Duplantie, M., & LeBlanc, R. 1986. *Propos sur la pédagogie de la communication en langues secondes*. Centre éducatif et culturel: Montréal.
- Bourgain, D. 1982. "Enseigner la littérature? Des enseignants face au texte littéraire". *Littérature et classe de langue*. Collection LAL, Hatier: Paris.

- Bovet, P. 1943. *Jean Amos Comenius: un patriote cosmopolite*. Port-Noir: Geneva.
- Boyer, H., Rivera, M. & Pendanx, M. 1990. *Nouvelle introduction à la didactique du français langue étrangère*. CLE International: Paris.
- Breen, M. 1987. "Contemporary Paradigms in Syllabus Design". *Language Teaching*, XX, 3 & 4. Cambridge University Press: Cambridge.
- Brittingham, B.E. 1988. "Undergraduate students' use of time: a classroom investigation". *To Improve the Academy*, vol. 7, 45-52.
- Brookhart, S. M. 2001. "Successful students' formative and summative uses of assessment information". *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education*, vol. 8, no. 2, 153-169.
- Brooks, N. 1964. *Language and Language Learning*. 2nd ed. Harcourt, Brace and World: New York.
- Brownstein, A. (2001, Feb. 16) Upping the ante for student aid [on-line]. *The Chronicle of Higher Education*. <http://chronicle.com/>
- Brumfit, C. 1984. *Communicative Methodology in Language Teaching*. Cambridge University Press: Cambridge.
- Bruner, J. 1977. "The Organization of action & the nature of adult-infant transaction". In Haring, N. & Bateman, B. *Teaching the learning disabled child*. Prentice-Hall.
- Brydon, T-J. 2008. "An Analysis of Students' Perceptions about the Importance of Learning French in the Western Cape". Submitted 06 June 2008 to the Department of Education for the course Research Methods EDN5098Z in partial fulfilment of the degree of BA Honours in French (Teaching French as a Foreign Language), University of Cape Town.
- Calhoun, C. & Solomon, R. 1984. *What is an Emotion? – Classical Readings in Philosophical Psychology*. Oxford University Press: New York/Oxford.
- Canale, M. & Swain, M. 1980. "Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing". *Applied Linguistics*, 1/1, 1-47.
- Caravolas, J. 1984a. *Le Gutenberg de la didactographie ou Comenius et l'enseignement des langues*. Guérin: Montréal.
- Caravolas, J. 1984b. "Comenius et la didactique des langues modernes". *Revue canadienne des langues vivantes*, 41/1, 13-21.
- Carless, D.M. 2002. "The 'mini-viva' as a tool to enhance assessment for learning". *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education*, vol. 27, no. 4, 353-363.
- Carroll, M. 1995. "Formative assessment workshops: feedback sessions for large classes". *Biomedical Education*, vol. 23, no. 2, 65-67.
- Chalaron, M.-L. & Roesch, R. 1990. *La Grammaire autrement sensibilisation et pratique*. PUG: Grenoble.
- Chansarkar, B.A. & Raut-Roy, U. 1987. "Student performance under different assessment situations". *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education*, vol. 12, no. 2, 115-122.

- Chatel, É. 1999. "Didactique. Légitimité savante et valeur scientifique dans l'enseignement des SES. Une approche critique du concept de transposition didactique". *DEES*, 116 (Juin 1999), 23-27.
- Chaucer, G. 1906. *The Canterbury Tales*. Oxford University Press: Oxford.
- Chevallard, Y. 1985. *La Transposition didactique*. La Pensée Sauvage: Grenoble.
- Chevallier-Wixler, D., Dayez, Y., Lepage, S. & Riba, P. 2006. *Réussir le DELF Niveau B1 du cadre européen commun de référence*. Didier FLE: Paris.
- Chickering, A. & Gamson, Z. 1987. *Seven Principles to Good Practice in Undergraduate Education*. The Johnson Foundation Inc: Racine, Wi.
- Chisholm, L. 2003. The Politics of Curriculum Review and Revision in South Africa. Presented at the 'Oxford' International Conference on Education and Development, 9-11 September 2003 at the session on Culture, Context and the Quality of Education. Viewed 1 June 2008. <http://www.hsrb.ac.za>
- Chomsky, N. 1957. *Syntactic Structures*. Mouton: The Hague.
- Chomsky, N. 1959. "Review of B.F. Skinner, *Verbal Behavior*". *Language* 35, 26-58.
- Chomsky, N. 1965. *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax*. MIT Press: Cambridge, Mass.
- Cloete, N., Maassen, P., Fehnel, R., Moja, T., Gibbon, T. & Perold, H. (eds) 2002. *Transformation in Higher Education: Global Pressures and Local Realities in South Africa*. Juta: Lansdowne.
- Cohen, M. 1973. *Histoire d'une langue: le français*. Éditions sociales: Paris.
- Collinge, N. 1988. "Thoughts on the Pragmatics of Ancient Greek", *Proceedings of the Cambridge Philological Society*, NS 34, 1-13.
- Comenius, J.-A. 1658. *Orbis Sensualium Pictus. Facsimile of the Third London Edition 1672*. Introduction Bowen, J. 1967. Sydney University Press: Sydney.
- Comenius, J.-A. 1896 [1638]. *The Great Didactic*. Adam & Charles Black: London.
- Comenius, J.-A. 1952 [1638]. *La Grande Didactique*. Translated by Piobetta, J.-P. Presses Universitaires de France: Paris.
- Conseil de la Coopération culturelle. Comité de l'éducation. Division des langues vivantes. Strasbourg. 2000. *Cadre européen commun de référence pour les langues: apprendre, enseigner, évaluer*. Viewed 11 May 2008 <http://medias.didierfle.com/media/contenuNumerique/007/4140016745.pdf>
- Conway, M.A., Cohen, G. & Stanhope, N. 1992. "Why is it that university grades do not predict very long-term retention?" *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General*, vol. 120, 20-33.
- Cook, A. 2001. "Assessing the use of flexible assessment". *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education*, vol. 26, no. 6, 539-549.
- Cooper, N.J. 2000. "Facilitating learning from formative feedback in level 3 assessment". *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education*, vol. 25, no. 3, 279-291.

- Cortés, J. 1981. "L'ancien et le nouveau testament de la didactique des langues", *Revue de Phonétique Appliquée*. Numéro spécial: Problématique S.G.A.V. et approche communicative, 59-60, pp 247-267
- Courchène, R. 1992. *Comprehension-based second language learning*. Actes de la deuxième biennale de l'Institut des langues secondes, Université d'Ottawa: Ottawa, pp. 477-487.
- Courchène, R., St John, J., Thérien, C. & Glidden, J. 1992 (eds.) *Comprehension-based language teaching: current trends*. University of Ottawa Press: Ottawa.
- Cribiore, R. 2001. *Gymnastics of the mind: Greek education in Hellenistic and Roman Egypt*. Princeton University Press: Princeton
- Crooks, T.J. 1988. "The impact of classroom evaluation practices on students". *Review of Educational Research*, vol. 58, no. 4, 438-481.
- Cummins, J. 1976. *Influence of bilingualism on cognitive growth: a synthesis of research findings and explanatory hypotheses*. Educational Research Centre, St Patrick's College: Dublin.
- Curran, C. 1972. *Counseling-Learning. A Whole-Person Model for Education*. Grune & Stratton: New York.
- Curran, C. 1976. *Counseling-Learning in Second Languages*. Apple River Press: Apple River, Ill.
- Curran, C. 1982. "Community Language Learning". In *Innovative Approaches to Language Teaching*. (ed. Robert Blair). Newbury House Publishers Inc.: Rowley.
- Dalgalian, G., Lieutaud, S. & Weiss, F. 1983. *Pour un nouvel enseignement des langues*. CLE International: Paris.
- Darian, S. 1972. *English as a Foreign Language – History, Development, and Methods of Teaching*. University of Oklahoma Press: Norman, Oklahoma.
- De Carlo, M. 1998. *L'Interculturel (Didactique des Langues Etrangères)*. CLE International: Paris.
- De Vries, R., Zan, B., Hildebrandt, C., Edmiaston, R. & Sales, C. 2002. *Developing constructivist early childhood curriculum: practical principles and activities*. Teachers College Press: NY.
- Department of Education. 2003. National Curriculum Statement Grades 10-12 (General) Languages, English 1st additional language. Viewed 3 November 2007
<http://www.fsdoe.fs.gov.za/curriculumonline/fet/NCS/Languages/firstaddlanguage/English/stAddLanguage.pdf>
- Derrida, J. 1972. *Marges de la philosophie*. Editions de Minuit: Paris.
- Diller, K. 1971. *Generative Grammar, Structural Linguistics, and Language Teaching*. Newbury House: Rowley, Mass. [re-edited in 1978 as *The Language Teaching Controversy*].
- Di Vesta, F.J. 1987. "The Cognitive Movement and Education". In Glover, J.A. & Ronning, R.R. (eds.) *Historical Foundations of Educational Psychology*. Plenum Press: New York.

- Dochy, F., Segers, M. & Sluijsmans, D. 1999. "The use of self-, peer- and co-assessment: a review". *Studies in Higher Education*, vol. 24, no. 3, 331-350.
- Dobrovsky, S. & Todorov, T. (eds). 1971. *L'Enseignement de la littérature-colloque de Cerisy-la-Salle juillet 1969*. Librairie Plon: Paris.
- Dobrovsky, S. & Todorov, T. 1980. *Parcours critique*, Editions Galilée: Paris.
- Duplantie, M. & Tremblay, R. 1990. "Le syllabus communicatif/expérientiel, essai de synthèse". *Revue canadienne des langues vivantes*, 47/1.
- Duplantie, M., Beaudoin, C. & Hullen, J. 1990. *Elans*. Centre éducatif et culturel: Montréal.
- Duplantie, M., LeBlanc, R. & Tremblay, R. 1988. "Initiation au voyage", Ottawa: *Etude nationale sur le français des programmes de base*.
- Duquette, G., Dunnett, S. & Papalia, A. 1987. "The Effect of Authentic Materials in Acquiring a Second Language". *Canadian Modern Language Review*, No 43, pp479-92.
- Engeström, Y., Miettinen, R., Punamäki, R.-L. (eds.) 1999. *Perspectives on activity theory*. Cambridge University Press: New York.
- Final Report: Academic Review of the School of Languages and Literatures (University of Cape Town), 23rd October 2006, 35.
- Firth, J.R. 1957. *Papers in Linguistics, 1934-1951*. Oxford University Press: London, New York.
- Forbes, D. & Spence, J. 1991. "An experiment in assessment for a large class". In Smith, R. (ed.) *Innovative Teaching in Engineering*. Ellis Horwood: London.
- Gagne, R.M. 1977. *The Conditions of Learning*. 3rd edition, Holt, Rinehart and Winston: New York.
- Gagnon, N. 1988. "L'apprentissage d'une langue par les mouvements du corps (TPR Total Physical Response)". *Bulletin de l'AQEFLS*, 9/4, 16-19.
- Galisson, R. 1983. *La suggestion dans l'enseignement – Histoire et enjeu d'une pratique tabou*. CLE International: Paris.
- Galisson, R. 1987. "Accéder à la culture partagée par l'entremise des mots à C.C.P." *Études de linguistique appliquée*, 67, 119-140.
- Galisson, R. 1997. "Problématique de l'éducation et de la communication interculturelles en milieu scolaire européen". *Études de linguistique appliquée*, 106, 141-160.
- Gamoran, A., Secada, W.G. & Marrett, C.B. 2000. "The Organizational context of teaching and learning: Changing theoretical perspectives". In Maureen T. Hallinan (ed.) *Handbook of Sociology in Education*. pp37-63. Kluwer Academic/Plenum: New York.
- Gardiner, L.F. 1997. "Redesigning higher education: producing dramatic gains in student learning." *ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Reports*, vol. 23, no. 7. Association for the Study of Higher Education: Washington, DC.

- Gattegno, C. 1972. *Teaching Foreign Languages in Schools: The Silent Way*, 2nd edition. Educational Solutions: New York. In Blair, R. (re-ed.) 1982. *Innovative Approaches to Language Teaching*. Newbury House: Rowley, Mass.
- Gattegno, C. 1976. *The Common Sense of Teaching Foreign Languages*. Educational Solutions: New York. In Blair, R. (re-ed.) 1982. *Innovative Approaches to Language Teaching*. Newbury House: Rowley, Mass.
- Gattegno, C. 1987. *La lecture en couleurs*. Une education pour demain: Larnod
- Geertz, C. 1973. "The Growth of Culture and the Evolution of Mind." In *The Interpretation of Cultures: Selected Essays*. Basic Books: New York.
- Genesee, F. 1982. "Experimental neuropsychological research on second language processing". *TESOL Quarterly*, 16, 315-324.
- Germain, C. 1976. "L'image dans l'apprentissage des langues". *Communication et Langues*, No. 29 (1), pp 51-68
- Germain, C. 1979. "L'approche fonctionnelle en didactique des langues". *Revue canadienne des langues vivantes*, 37/1.
- Germain, C. 1989. "Un cadre conceptuel pour la didactique des langues". *Études de linguistique appliquée*, No 75, 61-77.
- Germain, C. 1991. *L'approche communicative en didactique des langues*. CLE International: Paris.
- Germain, C. 1991. *Le point sur l'approche communicative en didactique des langues*. Centre éducatif et culturel: Montréal.
- Germain, C. 1993. *Évolution de l'enseignement des langues: 5 000 ans d'histoire*. CLE International: Paris.
- Germain, C., Hardy, M. & Pambianchi, G. 1991. *Interaction enseignant/élèves – Selon une démarche communicative/expérientielle*. In R. Tremblay (ed.) collection "Plan de perfectionnement en français langue seconde". Centre Educatif et Culturel: Montréal.
- Gibbs, G. & Lucas, L. 1987. "Coursework assessment, class size and student performance: 1984-94". *Journal of Further and Higher Education*, vol. 21, no. 2, 183-192.
- Gibbs, G. & Simpson, C. 2004-2005. "Conditions under which assessment supports students' learning?" *Learning and Teaching in Higher Education*, Issue I, 1-29.
- Girardet, J. & Pécheur, J. 2005. *Campus 1 Méthode de français*. CLE International: Paris.
- Girardet, J. & Pécheur, J. 2005. *Campus 1: cahier d'exercices*. CLE International: Paris.
- Girardet, J. & Pécheur, J. 2006. *Campus 2: Méthode de français + livret de civilisation*. CLE International: Paris.
- Godart, A. 1903. "La lecture directe". *Revue de l'Enseignement des Langues Vivantes*, No 11, janvier 1903, pp 471-486.
- Gougenheim, G., Michéa, R., Rivenc, P., & Sauvageot, A. 1962. "L'élaboration du français fondamental". *Voix et Images de France*. Didier: Paris.
- Gouin, F. 1880. *L'art d'enseigner et d'étudier les langues*. Librairie Fischbacher: Paris.

- Gray, K. 1990. "Syllabus design for the general class: what happens to theory when you apply it". *ELT Journal*, 44/4, 261-271.
- Grégoire, M. & Thiévenaz, O. 2003. *Grammaire progressive du français niveau intermédiaire*. CLE International: Paris.
- Guberina, P. 1965. "La Méthode audio-visuelle structure-globale" *Revue de Phonétique Appliquée*. No. 1, Mons, pp 35-64.
- Guéron, P. 2002. *Vivez les affaires*. Paris: Hachette.
- Hallion, K. *Deconstruction and Speech Act Theory: A Defence of the Distinction between Normal and Parasitic Speech Acts*. Viewed 3 February 2008. <http://www.e-anglais.com/thesis.html>
- Halliday, M.A.K. 1978. *Language as Social Semiotic: The Social Interaction of Language and Meaning*. Edward Arnold: London.
- Hattie, J.A. 1987. "Identifying the salient facets of a model of student learning: a synthesis of meta-analyses". *International Journal of Educational Research*, vol. 11, 187-212.
- Haughey, M. & Anderson, T. 1998. *Networked Learning. The Pedagogy of the Internet*. McGrall Hill: Montreal.
- Higgins, J. 2000. "Academic Freedom in the New South Africa". *Boundary 2*, 27(1), 97-119.
- Higgins, J. 2001. "Academic Freedom in the New South Africa". *Sufundi*, 5, 1-18.
- Higgins, J. 2007. 'It's Literacy, Stupid!': Declining the Humanities in NRF Research Policy". *JHEA/RESA*, 5(1), 95-112
- Higgins, R., Hartley, P. & Skelton, A. 2001. "Getting the message across: the problem of communicating assessment feedback". *Teaching in Higher Education*, vol. 6, no. 2, 269-274.
- Hmelo-Silver, C.E., Duncan, R.G. & Chinn, C.A. 2007. "Scaffolding and Achievement in Problem-Based and Inquiry Learning: A Response to Kirschner, Sweller, and Clark". *Educational Psychologist*, 42 (2), 99-107.
- Holec, H. 1981. "Autonomie dans l'apprentissage et apprentissage dans l'autonomie". *Études de linguistique appliquée*, 41.
- Holmes, B. Tangney, B., FitzGibbon, A., Savage, T. & Mehan, S. 2001. "Communal constructivism: students constructing learning for as well as with others". Centre for Research in IT in Education, Trinity College, Dublin: Ireland.
- Holt, D.G. & Willard-Holt, C. 2000. "Let's get real: Students solving authentic corporate problems". *Phi Delta Kappan*, vol. 82, No 3, pp 243-246.
- Hornby, A. 1963. *The Teaching of Structural Words and Sentence Patterns*. Oxford University Press: London.
- Houssaye, J. 1988a. *Le Triangle Pédagogique*. P. Lang: Bern.
- Houssaye, J. 1988b. *Pratiques Pédagogiques*. P. Lang: Bern.
- Howatt, A.P.R. 1984. *A History of English Language Teaching*. Oxford University Press: Oxford.

- Hubbard, P., Jones, H., Thornton, B. & Wheeler, R. 1983. *A Training Course for TEFL*. Oxford University Press: Oxford.
- Husserl, E. 1982. *Ideas Pertaining to a Pure Phenomenology and to Phenomenological Philosophy. General Introduction to a Pure Phenomenology*. Trans. Kersten, F. Nijhoff: The Hague.
- Hutchings, P., Marcehes, T. & Wright, B. 1991. *Using Assessment to Strengthen General Education*. American Association for Higher Education: Washington, DC.
- Hyland, F. 2001. "Providing effective support investigating feedback to distance language learners". *Open Learning*, vol. 16, no. 3, 233-247.
- Innis, K. 1996. *Diary Survey: how undergraduate full-time students spend their time*. Leeds: Leeds Metropolitan University.
- Jackson, S. 1995. "Work-based learning for academic credit". *Journal of Geography in Higher Education*, 19 (2), 217-222.
- Jackson, S. & Solís, J., (eds). 1995. *Beyond Comfort Zones in Multiculturalism. Confronting the Politics of Privilege*. Westport: CT.
- Jansen, J. 1997. "Why OBE Will Fail" unpublished paper, republished as "Why Outcomes-Based Education will fail: an elaboration". In Jansen, J. & Christie, P. (eds). (1999) *Changing curriculum: studies on Outcomes Based Education in South Africa*. Juta: Lansdowne.
- Jean, G. 1987. *L'Écriture mémoire des hommes*. Gallimard: Paris.
- Jespersen, O. 1928. *How to Teach a Foreign Language*. George Allen & Unwin Ltd: London
- Johnson, A.-M. & Menand, R. 2004. *taxi! 3 méthode de français*. Hachette FLE: Paris.
- Johnson, A.-M. & Menand, R. 2004. *taxi! 3 méthode de français: cahier d'exercices*. Hachette FLE: Paris.
- Jonassen, D. 1997. "Instructional Design Models for Well-Structured and Ill-Structured Problem-Solving Learning Outcomes". *Educational Technology Research and Development*. 45 (1), 65-94.
- Jonassen, D.H. & Reeves, T.C. 1996. "Learning with technology: Using computers as cognitive tools". In Jonassen (ed.) *Handbook of Research for Educational Communications and Technology*. Macmillan: New York.
- Jonassen, D., Mayes, T., & McAleese, R. 1993. "A manifesto for a constructivist approach to uses of technology in higher education". In Duffy, T., Lowyck, J., & Jonassen, D. (eds). *Designing Environments for Constructive Learning*. Springer Verlag: Heidelberg.
- Kanpol, B. & McLaren, P. (eds). 1995. *Critical Multiculturalism. Uncommon Voices in a Common Struggle*. Westport: CT.
- Kelly, L. 1969. *25 Centuries of Language Teaching: 500 BC - 1969*. Newbury House: Rowley, Mass.
- Kember, D., Ng, S., Tse, H., Wong, E.T.T. & Pomfret, M. 1996. "An examination of the interrelationships between workload, study time, learning approaches and academic outcomes". *Studies in Higher Education*, vol. 21, no. 3, 347-358.

- Kirschner, P., Sweller, J. & Clark, R. 2006. "Why minimal guidance during instruction does not work: an analysis of the failure of constructivist, discovery, problem-based, experiential, and inquiry-based teaching". *Educational Psychologist*, 41 (2), 75-86.
- Knapper, C. & Cropley, A. 1987. *Lifelong Learning in Higher Education*. Routledge: London & New York.
- Kniveton, B.H. 1996. "Student Perceptions of Assessment Methods". *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, vol. 21, no. 3, 229-238.
- Kottak, C. 1997. *Anthropology. The Exploration of Human Diversity*. 7th edition. McGraw-Hill: Paris.
- Kramer, S. 1957. *History begins at Sumer*. Doubleday: Garden City, NY.
- Krashen, S. & Terrell, T. 1983. *The Natural Approach: Language Acquisition in the Classroom*. Pergamon Press: New York.
- Krashen, S. 1985. *Inquiries & Insights*. Alemany Press: Hayward, CA.
- Kukla, A. 2000. *Social Constructivism and the Philosophy of Science*. Routledge: London. Can we add
- Kulik, C.C., Kulik, J.A. & Cohen, P.A. 1980. "Instructional technology and college teaching". *Teaching Psychology*, vol. 7, 199-205.
- Larsen-Freeman, D. 1986. *Teaching and Principles in Language Teaching*. Oxford University Press: Oxford.
- Laurie, S.S. 1972 [1892]. *John Amos Comenius*. Burt Franklin: New York.
- Le Ninan, C. 1993. *Le français des affaires par la vidéo: livre de l'étudiant*. Ministère des affaires étrangères, sous-direction de la coopération linguistique et éducative; Centre de Linguistique Appliquée, Université de Franche-Comté. Didier/Hatier: Paris.
- LeBlanc, R. 1989. "Le curriculum multi-dimensionnel: une approche intégrée pour l'enseignement de la langue seconde". *Etudes de linguistique appliquée*, 75.
- LeBlanc, R. 1990. *Etude nationale sur le français des programmes de base. Rapport / synthèse / National Core French Study – A Synthesis*. ACPLS & Editions M: Winnipeg.
- LeBlanc, C., Courtel, C. & Trescases, P. 1990. *Syllabus Culture*. M/Editeur: Ottawa.
- Le Bougnec, J.-T., Menand, R., Vidal, M. & Lopes, M.-J. 2002. *Méthode de français Forum No. 3*. Hachette FLE: Paris.
- Legendre, G. 1988. "Studies of Passive Clauses". *Le Français Moderne* 56, 1/2, 113-119.
- Legendre, R. 1988. *Dictionnaire actuel de l'éducation*. Larousse: Paris, Montréal.
- Lemeunier, V. 2006. *Élaborer une unité didactique à partir d'un document authentique*. Viewed 4 July 2008 <http://www.franccparler.org/dossiers/lemeunier2006.htm>
- Leontiev, A.N. 1974. "The Problem of Activity in Psychology". *Soviet Psychology*, vol 13 (2), pp 4-33.
- Lescure, R., Chenard, S., Mubanga Beya, A., Bourbon, V., Rausch, A. & Vey, P. 2007. *Le nouvel entraînez-vous C1/C2: 250 activités*. CLE International: Paris.

- Levy, M. 1997. *Computer-Assisted Language Learning*. Oxford University Press: Oxford.
- Liu & Matthews, M. 2005. "Vygotsky's philosophy: constructivism and its criticisms examined". *International Education Journal*, 6 (3), 386-399.
- Locke, J. 1966 [1693]. *Quelques pensées sur l'éducation*. Translation of *Some Thoughts Concerning Education* by Compayré, G. Introduction and Notes, Château, J. 1966, Vrin: Paris.
- Lozanov, G. 1979. *Suggestology and Outlines of Suggestopedy*. Gordon & Breach Science Publishers: New York.
- Macdonald, J. & Twining, P. 2002. "Assessing activity-based learning for a networked course". *British Journal of Educational Technology*, vol. 33, No 5, 603-618.
- MacFarlane, B. 1992. "The 'Thatcherite' generation of university degree results". *Journal of Further and Higher Education*, vol. 16, 60-70.
- Mackey, W. 1972. *Principes de didactique analytique*, translation of *Language Teaching Analysis*, 1965, by Lorne Laforge, Didier: Paris.
- MacMahon, M. 1997. "Social constructivism and the world wide web – A paradigm for learning". Paper presented at the Ascilite Conference 1997, Perth, WA, Australia. In Ang, C.S., Avni, E., Zaphiris, P. "Linking Pedagogical Theory of Computer Games to Their Usability". *International Journal on E-Learning* 2008, 7(3), pp 533-588
- Marrou, H.-I., 1960. *Histoire de l'éducation dans l'antiquité*. 5th ed. Éditions du Seuil: Paris. New edition: collection "Points histoire", 1981.
- Martel, A. 2000. Constructing Learning with Technologies. Second/Foreign Languages on the WEB. Viewed 9 April 2008. <http://ourworld.compuserve.com/homepages/michaelwendt/Seiten/Martel.htm>
- Martin, J-P. 2002. "Lernen durch lehren (LdL)". *Die Schulleitung-Zeitschrift für pädagogische Führung und Fortbildung in Bayern*. Heft 4. Dezember 2002. 29. Jahrgang, pp 3-9.
- Marton, F. & Wenestam, C.G. 1978. "Qualitative differences in the understanding and retention of the main points in some texts based on the principle-example structure". In Gruneberg, M.M., Moris, P.E. & Sykes, R.N. (eds).. *Practical Aspects of Memory*. Academic Press: London.
- Mayer, R. 2004. "Should there be a three-strikes rule against pure discovery learning? The case for guided methods of instruction". *American Psychologist*, 59 (1), 14-19.
- McLaughlin, B., Rosman, T., & McLeod, B. 1983. "Second language learning: An information processing perspective". *Language Learning* 33/2, 135-158.
- Mercer, N. 1995. *The Guided Construction of Knowledge*. Multilingual Matters Ltd: Clevedon (UK).
- Merleau Ponty, M. 1960. *Signes*. Gallimard: Paris.
- Merleau Ponty, M. 1976. *Phénoménologie de la Perception*. Gallimard, coll. Tel Paris: Paris.

- Mialaret, G. & Vial, J. 1981. *Histoire mondiale de l'éducation*. Tome I: "Des origines à 1515". Presses Universitaires de France: Paris.
- Miled, M. 1985. "L'Enseignement du récit en milieu tunisien". *Le Français aujourd'hui*, n° 70, Culture/Cultures, 37-41.
- Miquel, C. 1999. *Vocabulaire progressif du français niveau avancé*. CLE International: Paris
- Moffat, M. 1989. *Coming of Age in New Jersey: college and American culture*. Rutgers University Press: New Brunswick, NJ.
- Moget, M.-T. 1972. *De vive voix, livre du maître*. CRÉDIF: Paris.
- Moirand, S. 1979. *Situations d'écrit*. CLE International: Paris.
- Montaigne, M. de. 1580 - 1588. *Essais*. (eds). Villey, P. & Saulnier, V.-L. 1965. Presses Universitaires de France: Paris.
- Morrow, K. 1981. Principles of communicative methodology. In Johnson, K., & Morrow, K. (eds.) 1991. *Communication in the classroom*. Longman: Harlow.
- Nagle, S., & Sanders, S. 1986. "Comprehension theory and second language pedagogy". *TESOL Quarterly*, 20/1, 9-26.
- Nayrolles, F. 1992. *Pour étudier un poème*. Hatier: Paris.
- Nord, J.R. 1980. "Developing listening fluency before speaking: an alternative paradigm". *System*, No. 8, pp 1-22.
- Orsmond, P., Merry, S. & Reiling, K. 2002. "The use of exemplars and formative feedback when using student derived marking criteria in peer and self assessment". *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education*, vol. 27, no. 4, 309-323.
- Painchaud, G. 1990. "Les outils de la communication: Le syllabus langue". *Revue canadienne des langues vivantes*, 47/1, 54-65.
- Palmer, H. 1904. *Méthode Palmer. La langue anglaise à l'usage des Français. Conversation sans puérilité. Grammaire sans ennui*. Castaigne: Brussels.
- Palmer, H. 1906. *Correspondance commerciale anglaise. De quoi la faire très rapidement et sans étude. Recueil des phrases, expressions, locutions, formules et mots les plus usités dans la correspondance anglaise. La disposition de son contenu permet, même à celui qui ne connaît pas l'anglais, d'écrire correctement une lettre dans cette langue et de se faire comprendre parfaitement*. Lacroix: Verviers.
- Palmer, H. 1907. *The Palmer Method. Elementary French especially arranged for the use of adult pupils and students*. Issued in instalments. The Hythe Reporter: Hythe, Kent.
- Penfornis, J.-L. 2002. *français.com: cahier d'exercices*. CLE International: Paris.
- Penfornis, J.-L. 2003. *français.com: guide pédagogique*. CLE International: Paris.
- Penfornis, J.-L. 2003. *français.com, niveau avancé*. CLE International: Paris.
- Penny, A.J. & Grover, C. 1996. "An analysis of student grade expectations and marker consistency". *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education*, vol. 21, no. 2, 173-183.

- Perry, W.G. 1970. "Forms of Intellectual and Ethical Development in the College Years". Holy, Rinehart and Winston: New York. In Stage, F. & Dannells, M. 2000. *Linking Theory to Practice: Case Studies for Working with College Students*. Brunner-Routledge: New York.
- Petit, J. Février 2000. *La France, ton plurilinguisme fout le camp*. Viewed 15 March 2006. <http://www.chez.com/abcm/petit1.htm>
- Petitnicolas, Catherine. 2007. "Quand survient la maladie d'alzheimer". *Le Figaro* 22 September 2007. Viewed 14 October 2007. www.lefigaro.fr/reportage/20070922.FIG000000812_quand_survient_la_maladie_d_alzheimer.html
- Peytard, J. 1982. *Littérature et classe de langue*. Hatier, Collection LAL: Paris.
- Piaget, J. 1993. "Jan Amos Comenius". In *Prospects* (UNESCO, International Bureau of Education), vol. XXIII, no.1/2, 173-196.
- Porcher, L. 1986. *La Civilisation*. CLE International: Paris.
- Porcher, L. & Abdallah-Pretceille, M. 1986. *Éducation et communication interculturelle*. PUF: Paris.
- Prawat, R.S. & Floden, R.E. 1994. "Philosophical perspectives on constructivist views of learning. *Educational Psychologist*, vol. 29(1), January 1994, pp 37-48.
- Puren, C. 1988. *Histoire des méthodologies de l'enseignement des langues*. Nathan, CLE International: Paris.
- Race, P. 2006. "Feedback within 24 hours". Viewed 21 November 2007. <http://www.lsbu.ac.uk/ltcu/documents/24hrfeedback.pdf>
- Racle, G. 1975. *Une expérience d'enseignement avec la méthode suggestopédique: rapports, études, conférences, table ronde avec le Dr Lozanov*. Commission de la Fonction publique du Canada: Ottawa.
- Raynal, F. & Rieunier, A. 1997. *Pédagogie: dictionnaire des concepts clés*. ESF: Paris.
- Renard, R. 1976. *La méthodologie SGAV d'enseignement des langues*. Didier: Paris.
- Rézeau, J. 2006. <http://www.rezeau.org>. Viewed 11 July 2008. [Pagesperso-orange.fr/joseph.rezeau/tutoriels/traitementdetexte/SignetsRenvois.htm](http://pagesperso-orange.fr/joseph.rezeau/tutoriels/traitementdetexte/SignetsRenvois.htm)
- Richards, J. and Rodgers, T. 1986. *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching*. Cambridge University Press: Cambridge.
- Riché, P. 1979. *Écoles et Enseignement dans le Haut Moyen Âge*. Aubier Montaigne: Paris.
- Rivenc, P. 1991. "La problématique SGAV aujourd'hui". *Revue de Phonétique Appliquée*, No. 99, pp 121-132.
- Rivers, W.H. 1964. *The Psychologist and the Foreign Language Teacher*. University of Chicago Press: Chicago
- Rüschhoff, B. 1991. Construction of knowledge as the basis of foreign language learning. Viewed 4 May 2008 <http://www.uni-essen.de/anglistik/bernd/construction.htm>

- Sadler, D.R. 1989. "Formative assessment and the design of instructional systems". *Instructional Science*, vol. 18, 119-144.
- Sadler, D.R. 1998. "Formative assessment: revisiting the territory". *Assessment in Education: Principles, Policy and Practice* 5, no. 1, 77-84.
- Sagan, F. 1984. *Lectures*. Gallimard: Paris.
- Saïd, E. 1994. *Culture & Imperialism*. Vintage: London.
- Säljö, R. 1982. *Learning and Understanding*. Acta Universitatis Gothoburgensis: Goteborg.
- Salmon, G. 2004. *E-moderating: the key to teaching and learning on-line: 2nd edition*. Routledge Falmer: London.
- Sartre, J.-P. 1943. *L'Être et le néant: Essai d'ontologie phénoménologique*. Gallimard: Paris.
- Schneiderman, E., Bourdages, J., Champagne, C. 1988. "Reflections on studying prosody in talk-in interaction". *Language and Speech*. No. 41, pp 235-263.
- Schunk, D. 1984. "Self-efficacy perspective on achievement behaviour". *Educational Psychologist*, vol. 19, 48-58.
- Schunk, D. 1985. "Self-efficacy and classroom learning". *Psychology in the Schools*, vol. 22, 208-223.
- Scouler, K. 1998. "The influence of assessment method on students' learning approaches: multiple choice question examinations vs. essay assignment". *Higher Education*, vol. 35, 453-472.
- Searle, J. 1969. *Speech Acts: An Essay in the Philosophy of Language*. Cambridge University Press: Cambridge.
- Searle, J. 1979. *Expression and Meaning*. Cambridge University Press: Cambridge.
- Searle, J. 1983. *Intentionality: An Essay in the Philosophy of Mind*. Cambridge University Press: Cambridge.
- Searle, J. 1995. *The Construction of Social Reality*.
- Séoud, A. 1997. *Pour une didactique de la littérature*. Collection LAL, Didier: Paris.
- Sebti, F. 1995. *Moi Mireille, lorsque j'étais Yasmina*. Casablanca: Le Fennec, 1995
- Skinner, B.F. 1957. *Verbal Behavior*. Copley Publishing Group: Acton, Massachusetts.
- Sleeter, C. 1996. *Multicultural education as Social Activism*. State University of New York Press: Albany.
- Sly, L. 1999. "Practice tests as formative assessment improve student performance on computer managed learning assessments". *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education*, vol. 24, no. 3, 339-344.
- Smith, R. 1999. *The Writings of Harold E. Palmer An Overview*. Hon-no-Tomosha: Tokyo.
- Snyder, B.R. 1971. *The Hidden Curriculum*. MIT Press: Cambridge, MA.
- Starr, J.W. 1970. "Student opinion on methods of assessment". *Educational Review*, vol. 22, 243-253.

- Steadman, M. 1998. "Using classroom assessment to change both teaching and learning". *New Directions for Teaching and Learning*, vol. 75, 23-25.
- Stern, H. 1983. *Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching*. Oxford University Press: Oxford.
- Tang, C. 1994. "Effects of modes of assessment on students' preparation strategies". In Gibbs, G. (ed.) *Improving Student Learning: theory and practice*. Oxford Centre for Staff Development: Oxford.
- Taras, M. 2001. "The use of tutor feedback and student self-assessment in summative assessment: towards transparency for students and for tutors". *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education*, vol. 26, no. 6, 605-614.
- Tinto, V. 1993. *Leaving College: rethinking the causes and cures of student attrition*. University of Chicago Press: Chicago.
- Titone, R. 1968. *Teaching Foreign Languages: An Historical Sketch*. Georgetown University Press: Georgetown.
- Tremblay, R., Duplantie, M. & Huot, D. *The communicative/experiential syllabus*. Centre éducatif et culturel: Montréal.
- Unamuno, M. de. 1972. *The Tragic Sense of Life in Men and Nations*. Princeton University Press: Princeton.
- Unamuno, M. de. 1974. *The Agony of Christianity*. Princeton University Press: Princeton.
- Vail, L. (ed.) 1991. *The Creation of Tribalism in Southern Africa*. University of California Press: Berkeley.
- Vygotsky, L. 1962. *Thought and Language*. Translated by Hanfman, E. & Vakar, G. MIT Press: Cambridge, Mass.
- Vygotsky, L. 1978. *Mind and Society: the Development of Higher Mental Processes*. Harvard University Press: Cambridge, MA.
- Warren, J.R. 1971. *College Grading Practices: an overview, Report No. 9*, Washington D.C., ERIC Clearinghouse on Higher Education.
- Warschauer, M. 1996. Computer-Assisted Language Learning: an Introduction. In Fotos, S. (ed.) *Multimedia Language Teaching*. Logos International: Toyko. Viewed 30 September 2007. <http://www.ict4lt.org/en/warschauer.htm>
- Weil, D. 1998. *Towards a Critical Multicultural Literacy*. Peter Lang: New York.
- Wertsch, J.V. 1998. *Mind as Mediated Action*. Oxford University Press: New York
- Wicke, M. 1974. "The Hidden Curriculum". *Peabody Journal of Education* vol. 51, No 3, 234-5.
- Wilkins, D. 1976. *Notional Syllabuses*. Oxford University Press: Oxford.
- Wittgenstein, L. 1979. *Remarks on Colour*. Blackwell: UK.
- Wood, D. 1986. "Aspects of teaching and learning". In Richards, M. & Light, P. (eds.) 1986. *Children of Social Worlds*. Polity Press: Cambridge, pp 191-212.
- Wootton, S. 2002. "Encouraging learning or measuring failure?" *Teaching in Higher Education*, vol. 7, no. 3, 353-357.

- Yorke, M. 2001. "Formative assessment and its relevance to retention". *Higher Education Research and Development*, vol. 20, no. 2, 115-126.
- Young, P.T. 1959. "The role of affective processes in learning and motivation". *Psychology Review*, March 66(2), pp 104-25
- Zarate, G. 1986. *Enseigner une culture étrangère*. Hachette: Paris.
- Zarate, G. 1993. *Représentations de l'étranger et didactique des langues*. Didier: Paris.

University of Cape Town

Websites

- Crossways in European Humanities (Erasmus Mundus Masters). <http://www.munduscrossways.eu>. Viewed 3 March 2007.
- Durban University of Technology. <http://www.dut.ac.za> Viewed 3 November 2007.
- Eurydice (the information network on education in Europe). www.eurydice.org. Viewed 3 March 2007.
- Franc-Parler (la communauté mondiale des professeurs de français). <http://www.franc-parler.org/>. Viewed 1 June 2007
- Hachette Livre: Français Langue Etrangère. <http://www.club-forum.com>. Viewed from 15 February 2004.
- L'Expansion. <http://www.lexpansion.com>. Viewed from 15 February 2004
- Le Plaisir d'Apprendre (le site pédagogique destiné aux professeurs de Français Langue Etrangère). <http://www.leplaisirdapprendre.com>. Viewed from 15 February 2004.
- Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University (Faculty of Arts: Projects) <http://www.nmmu.ac.za/default.asp?id=4120&bhcp=1>. Viewed 3 November 2007.
- North-West University (School of Languages: French) http://www.puk.ac.za/fakulteite/lettere/skt/frans_e.html. Viewed 3 November 2007
- Radio France. <http://www.radiofrance.fr>. Viewed from 15 February 2004.
- Rhodes University (Faculty of Humanities: Languages). <http://www.ru.ac.za/703>. Viewed 3 November 2007.
- Tshwane University of Technology (Department of Applied Languages). http://www.language.tut.ac.za/subjects_lp.htm. Viewed 3 November 2007.
- TV5 Monde. <http://www.tv5.fr>. Viewed from 15 February 2004.
- University of Free State. <http://www.uovs.ac.za>. Viewed 2 November 2007
- University of Kwazulu-Natal. <http://www.ukzn.ac.za/LLL/frenchweb205.aspx>. Viewed 2 November 2007
- University of Limpopo. <http://www.medunsa.ac.za>. Viewed 2 November 2007
- University of Pretoria (Academic Programmes: Undergraduate, French) <http://web.up.ac.za/default.asp?ipkCategoryID=1973&sub=1&parentid=6>. Viewed 3 November 2007.
- University of Stellenbosch. <http://www.sun.ac.za>. Viewed 3 November 2007
- University of the North. <http://www.unorth.ac.za/FacultySchools/sch-lang/disciplines/French.html>. Viewed 3 November 2007.
- University of the Western Cape. <http://www.uwc.ac.za>. Viewed 3 November 2007
- University of Zululand. <http://www.uzulu.ac.za>. Viewed 2 November 2007

References: Works Consulted

- Actes de la table ronde organisée le 15 juillet 1995. "La Violence contre les femmes est une violence contre la société". Centre d'écoute et d'orientation juridique et psychologique pour les femmes agressées.
- al-Kiki, M. 1997. *Taking Gifts from Women Where the Fair Rule is Absent*. Translated by Toufiq. Dar al Gharb al-Islami: Beyrouth.
- Alvarez, A. & Del Río, P. 1990. "Actividad y lenguaje. El diseño cultural como marco para un programa de enseñanza del inglés como lengua extranjera". *Comunicación, Lenguaje y Educación*, no. 7-8, 99-125.
- Anon. 1935. *La Chanson de Roland*, Hachette: Paris.
- Atienza, J.L. 1996. "Emocionarse para aprender. Una defensa de los enfoques comunicativos". *Boletín de Lenguas*, no. 7, Madrid: CEP de Villaverde, 4.
- Attik, Mririda N'aït. 1986. *Les Chants de la Tassaout*, translated from the Berber by René Euloge, Editions Belvisi: Casablanca.
- Austin, J.L. 1961. *Philosophical Papers*. Urmson, J. & Warnock, G. (eds.) Oxford University Press: Oxford. 1979 edition.
- Barthes, R. 1973. *Le Plaisir du texte*. Collection Tel Quel, Editions du Seuil: Paris.
- Barthes, R. 1984. "Réflexions sur un manuel". In *Le bruissement de la langue, Essais critiques IV*. Editions du Seuil: Paris.
- Baruch, M. 1997. *Stéréotypes culturels et apprentissage des langues*. INRP/UNESCO: Paris
- Benadava, S. 1982. "De la civilisation à l'ethno-communication". *Le Français dans le monde*, n° 170, 33-38.
- Benadava, S. 1984. "La civilisation dans la communication". *Le Français dans le monde*, n° 184, 79-86.
- Berger, P.L. 1993. "The Uncertain Triumph of Democratic Capitalism". In Diamond, L. & Plattner, M. *Capitalism, Socialism and Democracy Revisited*. John Hopkins University Press: Baltimore.
- Besse, H. 1974. "Poésie et expression". *Le Français dans le monde*, n° 103, 66-72.
- Besse, H. 1984. "Eduquer la perception interculturelle". *Le Français dans le monde*, n° 188, 46-50.
- Besse, H. 1985. *Méthodes et Pratiques des manuels de langues*. Crédif-Didier: Paris.
- Besse, H. 1988. "Sur une pragmatique de la lecture littéraire ou 'de la lecture qui est la communication au sein de la solitude'". *Le Français dans le monde, recherches et applications*, n° spécial (février/mars), 53-62.
- Besse, H. 1988. "La culture des calembours". *Le Français dans le monde*, n° 223, 32-39.
- Besse, H. 1991. "Comment utiliser la littérature dans l'enseignement du F.L.E.". *Ici et là*, n° 20.

- Besse, H. 1993. "Cultiver une identité plurielle". *Le Français dans le monde*, n° 254, 42-48.
- Bibi, G., Peteet, J. & Stork, J. 1995. "The NGO phenomenon in the Arab world". *Middle East Report*, 193, 26-27. Middle East Research and Information Project: Washington.
- Biggs, J.B. & Collis, K.F. 1982. *Evaluating the Quality of Learning: the SOLO Taxonomy*. Academic Press: New York.
- Boucher, A.-M. 1986. "À quoi reconnaît-on du matériel de nature communicative?" *Propos sur la pédagogie de la communication en langues secondes*. CEC/CEPCEL: Montréal.
- Bourdieu, P. 1958. *Sociologie de l'Algérie*, Presses Universitaires de France: Paris.
- Bourdieu, P. 1982. *Ce que parler veut dire*. Fayard: Paris.
- Bowl, M. 2003. *Non-traditional entrants to higher education 'they talk about people like me'*. Trentham Books: Stoke on Trent.
- Boyer, H. & Rivera, M. 1979. *Introduction à la didactique du français langue étrangère*, CLE International: Paris.
- Bridges, P., Cooper, A., Evanson, P., Haines, C., Jenkins, D., Scurry, D., Woolf, H. & Yorke, M. 2002. "Coursework marks high, examination marks low: discuss". *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education*, vol. 27, no. 1, 35-48.
- Bruner, J. 1974. *Toward a Theory of Instruction*. Harvard University Press: Cambridge, Mass.
- Bull, B., Fruehling, R. & Chattergy, V. 1992. *The Ethics of Multicultural & Bilingual Education*. Teachers College Press: New York.
- Bull, B., Fruehling, R. & Chattergy, V. 1992. *The Ethics of Multicultural & Bilingual Education*. Teachers College Press: New York.
- Buyts, 2004. An Interactive, Multimedia, Web-based Program to Develop Proficiency in Specific Reading Skills for English First-Year University Students: An Empirical Study. M.Phil. Thesis, University of Stellenbosch.
- Byram, M. (ed.) 2000. *Routledge Encyclopedia of Language Teaching and Learning*. Routledge: London, New York.
- Calaque, E. (ed.) 1997. *L'enseignement précoce du français langue étrangère*. Laboratoire de Linguistique et Didactique des Langues Étrangères et Maternelles, Université Stendhal Grenoble III: Grenoble.
- Charaudeau, P. 1983. *Langues et discours. Éléments de sémiolinguistique (théories et pratiques)*. Hachette: Paris.
- Charaudeau, P. 1990. "L'interculturel entre mythe et réalité". *Le Français dans le monde*, n° 230, 48-53.
- Chickering, A. & Gamson, Z. 1991. *Applying the Seven Principles to Good Practice in Undergraduate Education*. Jossey-Bass: San Francisco.
- Chisholm, L. 2003. "The state of curriculum reform in South Africa: the issue of Curriculum 2005". In Daniel, J., Habib, A. & Southall, R. (eds.) *State of the Nation: South Africa 2003-2004*. HSRC Press: Cape Town.

- Chisholm, L., Motala, S. & Vally, S. 2003. *South African education policy review 1993-2000*. Heinemann: Johannesburg.
- Chomsky, N. 1964. *Current Issues in Linguistic Theory*. Mouton: The Hague.
- Chomsky, N. 1968. *Language and Mind*. Harcourt Brace Jovanovich Inc.: New York.
- Chomsky, N. 1975. *The Logical Structure of Linguistic Theory*. Plenum Press: New York.
- Chomsky, N. 1980. *Rules and Representations*. Blackwell: Oxford.
- Chomsky, N. 1986. *Knowledge of language: its nature, origin and use*. Praeger: New York.
- Cole, S., Coates, M. & Lentell, H. 1986. "Towards good teaching by correspondence". *Open Learning*, vol. 1, no. 1, 16-22.
- Constantinescu, A. 2007. Using Technology to Assist in Vocabulary Acquisition and Reading Comprehension. *The Internet TESL Journal*. 13 (2), 2007. Viewed 3 November 2007. <http://iteslj.org/Articles/Constantinescu-vocabulary.html>
- Cornu, L. & Verginoux, A. 1992. *Naissance des didactiques contemporaines. La Didactique en question*. Hachette: Paris.
- Coste, D. 1972. "Le renouvellement méthodologique dans l'enseignement du français langue étrangère". *Le Français dans le Monde* 87, 25. Also in Bouacha, A.A. 1978. *La Pédagogie du français langue étrangère*. Pp 12. Hachette: Paris.
- Coste, D. 1982. "Apprendre la langue par la littérature". In Peytard, J. (1982) *Littérature et classe de langue*. Hatier, Collection LAL: Paris.
- Coste, D. 1984. *Aspects d'une politique de diffusion du français langue étrangère depuis 1945*. Hatier: Paris.
- Courtilion, J. 2002. *Élaborer un cours de FLE*. Hachette FLE: Paris.
- Cuq, J.-P. 1991. *Le français langue seconde. Origines d'une notion et implications didactiques*. Hachette: Paris.
- Cuq, J.-P. 2003. *Dictionnaire didactique du français langue étrangère et seconde*. CLE International: Paris.
- Curtis, S. & Shami, N. 2002. "The effect of taking paid employment during term-time on students' academic studies". *Journal of Further and Higher Education*, vol. 26, no. 2, 60-70.
- Dahrendorf, R. 1968. "Uncertainty, Science, and Democracy". In *Essays in the Theory of Society*, Stanford University Press: Stanford.
- Daniel, J., Southall, R. & Lutchman, J. 2005. *State of the Nation 2004-2005*. HSRC Press: Cape Town.
- Davidov, V. 1986. *La enseñanza escolar y el desarrollo psíquico*. Editorial Progreso: Moscú.
- De Angelis, R. 2002. (ed.) *Between Anthropology and Literature*. Routledge: London/New York.

- Derrida, J. 1967. *De la grammatologie*. Editions de Minuit: Paris.
- Derrida, J. 1983. *La Voix et le phénomène*. 4th ed. Presses Universitaires de France: Paris.
- Dialmy, A. 1996. *Logement, sexualité et Islam*. Éditions EDDIF: Casablanca.
- Ding, L. 1998. "Revisiting assessment and learning implications of students' perspectives on assessment feedback". Paper presented to Scottish Educational Research Association Annual Conference, University of Dundee, September 25-26.
- Dunkin, M.J. 1986. "Research on Teaching in Higher Education". In M.C. Wittrock (ed.) *Handbook of Research on Teaching*, 3rd edition, New York: Macmillan.
- Duquette, L. 1989. "Les habiletés réceptives: situation actuelle et perspectives pédagogiques". In LeBlanc, R., Compain, J., Duquette, L. & Séguin, H. (re-ed.) *L'enseignement des langues secondes aux adultes: recherches et pratiques*. Les Presses de l'Université d'Ottawa: Ottawa.
- Easton, M. "Cost in translation". 2006. *BBC News* 12 December GMT 22.09. Viewed 12 December 2006. <http://news.bbc.co.uk/1/hi/uk/6172805>.
- Elias, N. 1973. *La Civilisation des mœurs*. Calmann-Lévy: Paris.
- Elkonin, D. 1984. *Psicología del juego*. Visor: Madrid.
- Estaire, S. & Zanón, J. 1994. *Planning Classwork. A Task-Based Approach*. Heinemann: Oxford.
- Everson, V. 2003. "Saqi, Sebti et Yacoubi: séparation religieuse, unité de foi". *French Studies in Southern Africa*, n° 32, 30-40.
- Everson-Ménager. 2001. *I Mireille who was once Yasmina*, New Arts Press: Pietermaritzburg, translation of *Moi Mireille, lorsque j'étais Yasmina*, Sebti, F. 1995. Le Fennec: Casablanca.
- Eurydice – Information network on education in Europe. Viewed 3 May 2008. www.eurydice.org/.
- France. 1975. Commission de réforme de l'enseignement du français, Ministère de l'Education, *Pour une réforme de l'enseignement du français*, Publication de l'Institut National de Recherche et de Documentation Pédagogique: Paris.
- Friedman, T. L. "Bread, Israel, Islam". *New York Times*, 23 February 1997.
- Friedman, T. L. "Jewish Right, Arab Left". *New York Times*, 19 February 1997.
- Fullinwider, R. 1996. (ed.) *Public Education in a Multicultural Society: Theory, Policy, Critique*. Cambridge University Press: Cambridge.
- Galisson, R. & Coste, D. 1976. *Dictionnaire de didactique des langues*. Hachette, Collection Folio: Paris.
- Galisson, R. 1980. *D'hier à aujourd'hui la didactique générale des langues étrangères*. CLE International: Paris.
- Galisson, R. 1990. "De la linguistique appliquée à la didactologie des langues-cultures". *Études de linguistique appliquée*, no. 79, 167.

- Galisson, R. 1992. "Institution cherche discipline qualifiée pour promouvoir langues-cultures. Urgent". Centre de documentation de l'ERADLEC, Paris-III, document de travail, 3.
- Galisson, R. 1992. *Institution cherche discipline qualifiée pour promouvoir langues-cultures. Urgent*. Centre de documentation de l'ERADLEC, Paris-III: Paris.
- Galisson, R. 1995. "En matière de culture le ticket AC-DI a-t-il un avenir?" *Études de linguistique appliquée*, 100, 79-98.
- Gardner, P. 2001. *Teaching and Learning in Multicultural Classrooms*. David Fulton: London.
- Garrett, N. 1991. "Technology in the service of language learning: trends and issues". *Modern Language Journal*, 75, 1, 74-101.
- Gellner, E. 1969. *Saints of the Atlas*, Weidenfeld and Nicolson: London.
- Germain, C. 1991. "Réflexions épistémologiques sur la didactique des langues". *Revue de Phonétique Appliquée*, No. 99, 105-119
- Germain, C. & LeBlanc, R. 1981. *Introduction à la linguistique générale, fasc. 1 La phonétique*. Les Presses de l'Université de Montréal: Montréal.
- Germain, C. & LeBlanc, R. 1981. *Introduction à la linguistique générale, fasc. 2, La phonologie*. Les Presses de l'Université de Montréal: Montréal.
- Germain, C. & LeBlanc, R. 1981. *Introduction à la linguistique générale fasc. 3, La morphologie*. Les Presses de l'Université de Montréal: Montréal.
- Germain, C. & LeBlanc, R. 1982. *Introduction à la linguistique générale fasc. 4, La syntaxe*. Les Presses de l'Université de Montréal: Montréal.
- Germain, C. & LeBlanc, R. 1982. *Introduction à la linguistique générale, fasc. 5, La sémantique*. Les Presses de l'Université de Montréal: Montréal.
- Ghazali, A. 1996. *Guide juridique et pratique des associations marocaines*. Introduction Azziman, O. Friedrich Ebert Stiftung: Rabat.
- Gibbs, G. & Simpson, C. 2002. "Does your assessment support your students' learning?" Open University: Student Support Research Group Report 40/2002.
- Gibbs, G. & Simpson, C. 2002. "Evaluation of Regional Retention Activity: interim report". Open University: Student Support Research Group Report 40/2002.
- Gibbs, G. 1992. *Assessing More Students*. Oxford Centre for Staff Development: Oxford.
- Gibbs, G. 1995. "Using assessment strategically to change the way students learn". In Brown, S. & Glasner, A. (eds.) *Assessment Matters in Higher Education*. Society for Research into Higher Education and Open University Press: Buckingham.
- Gibbs, G. 1995. *Assessing Student Centred Courses*. Oxford Centre for Staff Development: Oxford.
- Glover, C. & Brown, E. 2006. "Written Feedback for Students: too much, too detailed or too incomprehensible to be effective". *Bioscience Education e-journal*. Viewed 19 March 2008. <http://www.bioscience.heacademy.ac.uk/journal/vol. 7/ beej-7-3.htm>

- Gouin, F. 1986 [1880]. *The Art of Teaching and Studying Languages*. Translated from the French by Swan, H. and Bétis, V. 5th edition [1st edition in English: 1892]. George Philip & Son: London.
- Grandguillaume, G. 1983. *Arabisation et politique linguistique au Maghreb*. Maisonneuve et Larose: Paris.
- Greer, L. 2001. "Does changing the method of assessment of a module improve the performance of a student?" *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education*, vol. 26, no. 2, 127-138.
- Hall, S. 1990. Cultural Identity & Diaspora. In Rutherford, J., (ed.) *Identity: Community, Culture, Difference*. Lawrence & Wishart: London.
- Hébert, Y. 1990. "The General Language Education Syllabus in Summary". *Revue canadienne des langues vivantes*, 47/1, 355-384.
- Hébert, Y. 1990. *Etude nationale sur le français des programmes de base – Le syllabus formation langagière générale*. ACPLS & Editions M: Winnipeg.
- Heidegger, M. 1986. *Être et temps*. Gallimard: Paris.
- Heyneman, S. 1996. EMTHR, *The quality of education in the Middle East and North Africa*, Technical Department, Europe and Central Asia, Middle East and North Africa, World Bank, Working Papers Series n° 3, March 1996.
- Hounsell, D. 1987. "Essay writing and the quality of feedback". In Richardson, J.T.E., Eysenck, M.W. & Warren-Piper, D. (eds.) *Student Learning: research in education and cognitive psychology*. Open University Press and Society for Research into Higher Education: Milton Keynes.
- Hymes, D. 1972. "On communicative competence". In Pride, J. & Holmes, J. (eds.) *Sociolinguistics*. Penguin: Harmondworth.
- IEB Update on non-official languages. Viewed 12 May 2008. <http://ieb.co.za/assets/downloads/sce/nol/IEB%20NOL%20Statement.pdf>
- Jackson, M. 1995. *Making the grade: the formative evaluation of essays*. Viewed 3 November 2007. UtiliBASE. <http://ultibase.rmit.edu.au/Articles/jacks1.html>
- Johnson, L. & Smith, S. 1993. *Dealing with Diversity through Multicultural Fiction*. American Library Association: Chicago.
- Jonassen, D. & Mandl, H. 1990. *Designing Hypermedia for Learning*. Springer Verlag: New York.
- Knight, P. & Yorke, M. 2003. *Assessment, learning and employability*. SRHE/Open University Press: Maidenhead.
- Kramer, S. 1963. *The Sumerians – their history, culture, and character*. The University of Chicago Press: Chicago.
- Krashen, S. & Terrell, T. 1981. *Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Learning*. Pergamon Press: New York.
- Krashen, S. & Terrell, T. 1982. *Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition*. Pergamon Press: New York.
- Krashen, S. 1982. *Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition*. Pergamon Press; Oxford.

- La Vie Économique*, 1997. “La femme est l’avenir du Maroc”. 7 mars 1997 (supplément exceptionnel consacré à la femme à l’occasion du 8 mars).
- Lanly, A. 1962. *Le français d’Afrique du Nord*. Bordas: Paris.
- Laraoui, A. 1997. *Les origines sociales et culturelles du nationalisme marocain (1830-1912)*. Éditions François Maspéro: Paris.
- Le Petit Larousse Illustré*. 2007. Larousse: Paris
- Le Matin du Sahara*. 1995. Discours de Sa Majesté le Roi à l’ouverture de la session parlementaire de l’automne. 15 octobre 1995.
- Le Petit Robert. 2007. Dictionnaires Le Robert: Paris
- Lea, M. & Street, B. 1998. “Student writing in higher education: an academic literacies approach”. *Studies in Higher Education*, vol. 23, no. 2, 157-172.
- LeBlanc, C. & Courtel, C. 1990. “Executive Summary: The Culture Syllabus”. *Revue canadienne des langues vivantes*, 47/1, 82-92.
- LeBlanc, C., Courtel, C. & Trescases, P. 1990. *Etude nationale sur le français des programmes de base – Le syllabus culture*. ACPLS & Editions M: Winnipeg.
- Lévy-Mongelli, D. 1987. “Les chassés-croisés du savoir culturel en langue maternelle et en langue étrangère et la formation de l’unité du sujet culturel”. *Repères*, 3.
- Lévy-Strauss, C. 1990. *Race et histoire*. Denoël: Paris.
- Libération*, mardi 4 mars 1997. Discours Royal du 3 mars 1997.
- Macdonald, J. 2002. “‘Getting it together and being put on the spot’: synopsis, motivation and examination”. *Studies in Higher Education*, vol. 27, no. 3, 329-338.
- Macdonald, J., Heap, N. & Mason, R. 2001. “‘Have I learnt it?’ Evaluating skills for resource based study using electronic resources”. *British Journal of Educational Technology*, 32 (4), 419-433.
- MacLellen, E. 2001. “Assessment for learning: the different perceptions of tutors and students”. *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education*, vol. 26, no. 4, 307-318.
- Manessy, G. & Wald, P. 1984. *Le français en Afrique Noire, tel qu’on le parle, tel qu’on le dit*. L’Harmattan-IDERIC: Paris.
- Martel, A. 2002. Constructivisme et formation à distance. Viewed 9 April 2008. www.aplv-languesmodernes.org
- McKeachie, W.J., Pintrich, P.R., Lin, Y. & Smith, D. 1986. *Teaching and Learning in the College Classroom: a review of the research literature*. National Centre for Research to Improve Postsecondary Teaching and Learning, University of Michigan: Ann Arbor:
- Melton, R. 2000. *Assessment and Assignments — a review of related issues based on data collected from the 1998 courses survey*, Report SRC 200, Open University.
- Ménager, S. 1995. “Femmes du Maroc Années 90”. unpublished.

- Mentkowski, M., Astin, A., Ewell, P. & Moran, E. T. 1991. *Catching Theory up with Practice: conceptual frameworks for assessment*. AAHE Assessment Forum: Washington DC.
- Mernissi, F. 1998. *ONG Rurales du Haut-Atlas Les Aït Débrouille*. Éditions Le Fennec: Casablanca.
- Miller, C.M.I. & Parlett, M. 1974. *Up to the Mark: a study of the examination game*. Society for Research into Higher Education: Guildford.
- Millot, L. 1970. *Introduction à l'étude du droit musulman*. Recueil Sirey: Paris.
- Ministère des Droits de l'Homme et Institut de Développement Nord-Sud. 1994. *Le Guide de procédures appropriées à une gestion efficace des associations marocaines*. Collection Présence: Rabat.
- Moirand, S. 1982. *Enseigner à communiquer en langue étrangère*. Hachette: Paris.
- Montredon, J., Calbris, G. & Lavenne, C. 1976. *C'est le printemps*. CLE International: Paris.
- Mougenot, M. 1977. "Une introduction au cours du français". *Poétique*, avril 1977, n° 30, 182-191.
- Mounin, G. 1967. *Histoire de la linguistique, des origines au XX^e siècle*. Presses Universitaires de France: Paris.
- Naamouni, K. 1993. *Le Culte de Bouya Omar*. Éditions EDDIF: Casablanca.
- National Language Policy Framework. 2003. Viewed 12 May 2008. http://www.saps.gov.za/saps_profile/components/language_management/downloads
- Naturel, M. 1995. *Pour la littérature, de l'extrait à l'œuvre*. CLE International: Paris.
- Nemni, M. 1985. "Si communication savait ... Si grammaire pouvait ...". *Revue canadienne des langues vivantes*, 42/5, 288-306.
- Nemni, M., et Quillard, G. 1976. *Les Ensembles*. Prentice-Hall Inc. Canada.
- Nunan, D. 1989. *Designing Tasks for the Communicative Classroom*. Cambridge University Press: Cambridge.
- Oberlé, D. 1989. *Créativité et jeu dramatique*. Méridiens Klincksieck: Paris.
- Olivieri, C. & Voisin, J.-P. 1984. "Le français dans les pays francophones de l'océan indien". In Coste, D. (ed.) *Aspects d'une politique de diffusion du français langue étrangère depuis 1945*. Hatier: Paris.
- Oppenheim, A.N. 1966. *Questionnaire Design & Attitude Measurement*. (Reprinted 1983). Heinemann: London.
- Ortega, R. 1991. *El juego infantil y la construcción del conocimiento*. Ediciones Alfar: Madrid.
- Palmer, H. 1921. *The Principles of Language Study*. Harrap: London. Reissued 1964. Oxford University Press: London.
- Pastiaux-Thiriart, G. 1997. La recherche en didactique du texte littéraire dans la banque de données DAF/DAFTEL. In M. Noël-Gaudreault (dir) *Didactique de la littérature. Bilan et perspectives*. Pp 233-249. Nuit Blanche: Montréal.

- Paton-Salzberg, R. & Lindsay, R. 1993. *The Effects of Paid Employment on the Academic Performance of Full-time Students in Higher Education*. Oxford: Oxford Polytechnic.
- Peelo, M. & Wareham, T. (eds.) 2002. *Failing students in higher education*. SRHE/Open University: Buckingham.
- Pennac, D. 1992. *Comme un roman*. Gallimard: Paris.
- Petitjean, A., & Romian, H. (eds.) 1986. *Enseigner le français. Recherches et perspectives*, II^e Colloque International de Didactique et de Pédagogie du Français, De Boeck Duculot: Bruxelles.
- Porcher, L. 1995. *Le Français langue étrangère: émergence et enseignement d'une discipline*. CNDP/Hachette: Paris.
- Porquier, R. 1977. "L'analyse des erreurs. Problèmes et perspectives". *Études de Linguistique Appliquée*, no. 25, 23-43.
- Puren, C. Formes pratiques de combinaison entre perspective actionnelle et approche communicative: analyse comparative de trois manuels. Viewed 11 July 2008. <http://www.aplv-languesmodernes.org>
- Puren, C. *Le Niveau méthodologique*. Viewed 11 July 2008. <http://www.pdfmail.com>
- Quivy, R., et Van Campenhoudt, L. 1988. *Manuel de Recherche en Sciences Sociales*. Bordas: Paris.
- Race, P. 2005. *Making learning happen: A Guide for Post-Compulsory Education*. Sage: London.
- Race, P. 2006. *The Lecturer's Toolkit: 3rd edition*. Routledge: London.
- Ramsden, P. 1991. "A performance indicator of teaching quality in higher education: the Course Experience Questionnaire". *Studies in Higher Education*, vol. 16, 124-150.
- Ramsden, P., Beswick, D. & Bowden, J. 1987. „Learning processes and learning skills". In Richardson, J.T.E., Eysenck, M.W. & Warren-Piper, D.W. (eds.) *Student Learning: research in education and cognitive psychology*. Open University Press and Society for Research into Higher Education: Milton Keynes.
- Rapport de l'USAID-Maroc et DIS sur *Le Renforcement des ONG pour la démocratisation et le développement durable au Maroc: une enquête sur les ONG*, février 1996. Mernissi, F. 1998. *ONG Rurales du Haut-Atlas Les Aït Débrouille*. Éditions Le Fennec: Casablanca.
- Recensement 1994. Les caractéristiques socio-économiques de la population, niveau national. *Royaume du Maroc, Premier-ministre, ministre chargé de la Population, Direction de la Statistique*. Rabat, janvier 1996.
- Reicyn, N. 1941. *La Pédagogie de John Locke*. Hermann: Paris.
- Renzone, T. 1968. *Teaching Foreign Languages – An Historical Sketch*. Georgetown University Press: Washington.
- Ricardou, J. 1977. "Travailler autrement", In Mansuy, M. 1977. *L'Enseignement de la littérature, crise et perspectives*. Nathan: Paris.

- Rice, M., Mousley, J. & Davis, R. 1994. Improving student feedback in distance education: a research report. In T. Evans & D. Murphy (eds.) *Research in Distance Education 3: revised papers from the third research in distance education conference*, Geelong, Victoria: Deakin University Press.
- Richardson, M. 1976. "Culture and the Struggle to be Human". Paper delivered at the American Anthropological Association.
- Riché, P. 1981. *Instruction et Vie religieuse dans le Haut Moyen Âge*. Variorum Reprints: London.
- Rifki, H. 1987. *Analyse du mouvement associatif marocain*. Paper delivered at U.C.I., Rabat, 20-26 April 1987. In Mernissi, F. 1998. *ONG Rurales du Haut-Atlas Les Aït Débrouille*. Pp 111 Éditions Le Fennec: Casablanca.
- Rivers, W. (ed.) 1987. *Interactive Language Teaching*. Cambridge University Press: Cambridge.
- Roberts, D. 1996. "Feedback on assignments". *Distance Education*, vol. 17, no. 1, 95-116.
- Robins, R. 1976 [1967]. *Brève histoire de la linguistique – De Platon à Chomsky*. Collection Travaux linguistiques. Éditions du Seuil: Paris.
- Rodgers, T. 2001. *Language Teaching Methodology*. CAL digests on line. Viewed 4 May 2008. <http://www.cal.org/resources/Digest/Rodgers.html>
- Rowntree, D. 1987. *Assessing Students — how shall we know them?* Kogan Page: London.
- Sadiqi, F. 2003. *Women, Gender and Language in Morocco*. Brill: Leiden and Boston.
- Saïd, E. 1979. *Orientalism*. Vintage Books Edition: Vancouver, WA.
- Sambell, K. & McDowell, L. 1998. "The construction of the hidden curriculum: messages and meanings in the assessment of student learning". *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education*, vol. 23, no. 4, 391-402.
- Samimy, K. 1989. "A Comparative Study of Teaching Japanese in the Audio-Lingual Method and the Counseling-Learning Approach". *The Modern Language Journal*, 73/2, 167-176.
- Sartre, J.-P. 1984. *Qu'est-ce que la littérature*. Gallimard: Paris.
- Saussure, F. de. 1922. *Cours de linguistique générale*. Payot: Paris.
- Scouler, K. & Prosser, M. 1994. "Students' experiences of studying for multiple choice question examinations". *Studies in Higher Education*, vol. 19, no. 3, 267-280.
- Searle, J. 1992. *The Rediscovery of the Mind*. MIT/Bradford Books: Cambridge, Massachusetts.
- Searle, J. 1997. *The Mystery of Consciousness*. Granta Books: London.
- Searle, J. 1999. *Mind, Language and Society: Philosophy in the Real World*. Phoenix, London..
- Searle, J. 2002. *Consciousness and Language*. Cambridge University Press: Cambridge.

- Sebbar, L. 1988. "Si je ne parle pas la langue de mon père". In Saglyn, A. (ed.) *Voix de pères voix de filles Quinze femmes écrivains parlent de leurs pères*. Maren Sell et Cie: Paris.
- Stephenson, K., Sander, P. & Naylor, P. 1996. "Student perceptions of the tutor's role in distance learning". *Open Learning*, vol. 11, no. 1, 22-30.
- Summerfield, E. 1993. *Crossing Cultures through Film*, Intercultural Press: Yarmouth, Maine.
- Taylor, C. 1994. *Multiculturalisme. Différences et démocratie*. Flammarion: Paris.
- Taylor, R. 1980. *The computer in the school: tutor, tool, tutee*. Teachers College Press: New York.
- Terrell, T. 1977. "A natural approach to the acquisition and learning of a language". *Modern Language Journal* 61, 325-336.
- Terrell, T. 1982. "The natural approach to language teaching: an update". *Modern Language Journal*, 66, 121-132.
- Thomas, J.W., Iventosh, L. & Rohwer, W.D. 1987. "Relationships among student characteristics, study activities and achievement as a function of course characteristics". *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, vol. 12, 344-364.
- Thomas, M. 1998. "Programmatic Ahistoricity in Second Language Acquisition Theory". *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* (1998), 20, 387-405.
- Thorpe, L. (ed.) 1958. *Le Roman de Laurin*. Heffer: Cambridge.
- Todorov, T. 1989. *Nous et les autres*. Editions du Seuil: Paris.
- Torrance, H. & Pryor, J. 1998. *Investigative Formative Assessment: teaching, learning and assessment in the classroom*. Open University Press: Buckingham.
- Tynjala, P. 1998. "Traditional studying for examination vs constructivist learning tasks: do learning outcomes differ?" *Studies in Higher Education*, vol. 23, no. 2, 173-191.
- Valéry, P. 1957. *Œuvres*, Bibliothèque de la Pléiade, Gallimard: Paris.
- Verrier, J. 1984. 'Lecture des romans'. In *L'Enseignement de la littérature*. Doubrovsky, S. & Todorov, T. (eds.) Librairie Plon: Paris.
- Vigarello, G. 1996. "Cultures, culture". *Le Français dans le monde*, 'Cultures Anthropologiques' (25-67), no spécial janvier 1996. Recherches et applications. Hachette-EDICEF : Paris.
- Vinay, J.-P. 1968. Enseignement et apprentissage d'une langue seconde. In *Le langage*. (ed.) Martinet, A., collection La Pléiade. Gallimard: Paris.
- Vos, P. 1991. *Curriculum Control of Learning Processes in Higher Education*, 13th International Forum on Higher Education of the European Association for Institutional Research, Edinburgh.
- Wertsch, J.V. 1988. *Vigotski y la formación social de la mente*. Paidós: Barcelona.
- Wieviorka, M. 1997. *Une société fragmentée ? La Découverte*: Paris.

- Wilkins, D. 1978. *Functional Materials and the Classroom Teacher: some Background Issues*. Centre for Applied Language Series: University of Reading.
- Winnicot, D.W. 1975. *Jeu et réalité. L'espace potentiel*. Gallimard: Paris.
- Worden, N. 30 May 2006. *Undergraduate Academic Skills*. Document distributed to academic staff members of the Faculty of Humanities of the University of Cape Town.
- Wotjas, O. 1998. "Feedback? No, just give us the answers". *Times Higher Education Supplement*, September 25 1998.
- Yorke, M. 2002. "Academic Failure: a Retrospective View from Non-completing Students". In Peelo, M. & Wareham, T. (eds.) *Failing students in higher education*. SRHE/Open University: Buckingham.
- Zakaria, F. "Bigger than the Family, Smaller than the State. Are Voluntary groups what make countries work?" *New York Times Book Review*, 08-13-1995.

Websites consulted

- Council of Europe. <http://www.coe.int/T/DG4/Portfolio> Viewed 1 June 2007
- Conference on journalism (held annually at Rhodes University). <http://www.highwayafrica.ru.ac.za> Viewed 1 June 2007